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ABSTRACT

Not only is it important to present a global perspective across the curriculum, it is especially important that children be introduced to a global perspective as early as possible. Children are most amenable to learning about other peoples and cultures between the ages of seven and 12. This guide contains 24 classroom activities designed to illustrate the concepts of global awareness, human values, global systems, global issues and problems, and global history. Each activity suggestion includes sections on: introduction, objectives, grade level, time required, materials and preparation, procedure, and follow up. A list of 35 additional resource materials and 37 organizations is also included. (PPB)

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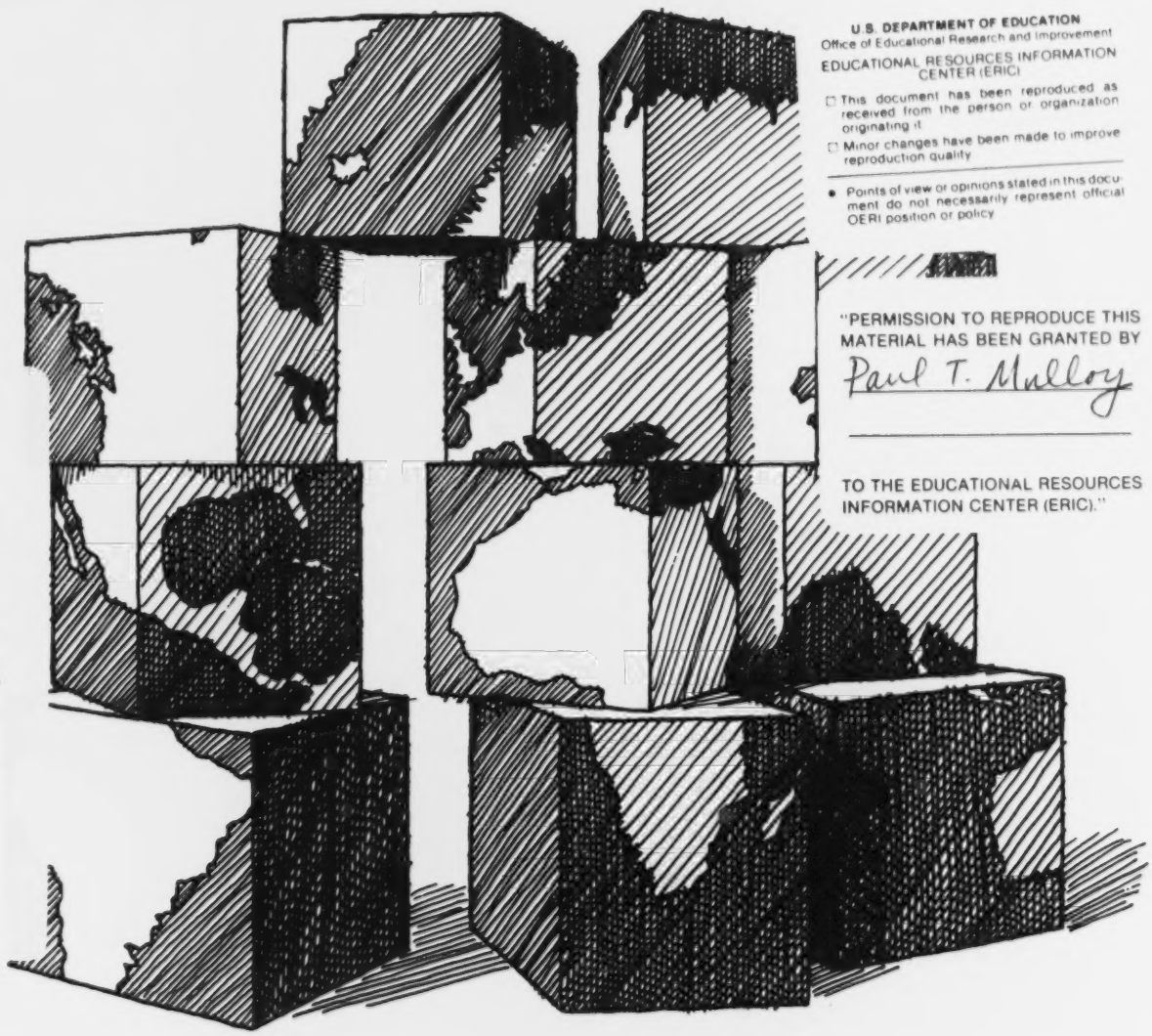
GLOBAL ISSUES
in the Elementary Classroom



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Paul T. Mulloy

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FOREWORD

Many activity books have been produced to help older students develop an appreciation for the global nature of issues that affect our society and an understanding of the interrelationships that bind us inextricably to other nations, regions, and peoples. There really has not been a collection of activities to help beginning students focus on broader global issues. It is the goal of this publication to fill that void.

Recent events reinforce the need for students to learn and to think with a global perspective. Open your daily newspaper at random. Wells Fargo sues Citibank over a loan of Eurodollars deposited in Manila. The Passamaquoddy tribe has engaged a Finnish firm to make prefabricated housing for distribution in New England. South Korean workers build hotels in Saudi Arabia that are designed by Americans. Milk production in Great Britain is still affected two years later by the nuclear accident at Chernobyl. And Stanford University is debating what to teach in Western Civilization, when an increasing number of our students are minorities and most of our trade is with Asia.

Learning and thinking with a global perspective does not mean stuffing more courses into an already-overstuffed curriculum. What is meant is something deeper and more pervasive: that every subject taught – science, history, geography, math, music, art, and, most emphatically, the basics of reading and writing – provides an opportunity for introducing young people to global issues and concepts that help them understand that the world is round, fragile, and fully packed. As a third-grade teacher once said, "Why not use population statistics and international currency exchange rates to teach arithmatic fractions? It's exciting for me and my students, and it offers a creative alternative to the standard methods for teaching the basics."

Not only is it important to present a global perspective across the curriculum, it is especially important that children be introduced to a global perspective as early as possible. National assessment studies indicate that children are most amenable to learning about other peoples and cultures between the ages of 7 and 12, certainly before the onset of puberty, when ethnocentrism and stereotypical thinking tend to increase dramatically. Today's students in this age group will live most of their lives in the 21st century. If these younger students learn to think with a global perspective, as adults they will be better able to cope with value choices in that complexity of puzzles called trade investment, arms control, conflict resolution, environmental protection, food production, and energy use.

Furthermore, it should be noted that Williard Kniep's model for bringing a global perspective into the curriculum does differ from the traditional K-6 curriculum in the United States. In the traditional curriculum, students in the primary grades examine themselves, their families, and their communities. As they progress, students go on to examine their state, their nation, and, finally, the world. In contrast to presenting students with this sequence of "expanding environments," Kniep's model offers several advantages. It is a highly useful method for organizing a wide variety of information, ideas, and resources. It also allows teachers to use the materials presented here together as a unit or to integrate them with the regular classroom curriculum. Finally, it demonstrates that a global perspective can be introduced with some confidence at the elementary level, where it has been long neglected.

In conclusion, while the activities in this book are ready for classroom use, we welcome comments from teachers about how various activities can be improved and expanded. We hope teachers will find this an interesting and relevant addition to their collection of resource materials.

Paul T. Mulloy, Director
Massachusetts Global Education Project

INTRODUCTION

In its position statement on global education, the National Council for the Social Studies recognized the need "to improve and to expand the global dimensions of the social studies curriculum." Since those guidelines were written in 1981, progress has been made, but there have also been setbacks. The materials available for teachers' use in developing global studies units or courses are still limited, particularly at the elementary level.

This book, which is based on the work of classroom teachers, is designed to address the need for elementary materials. It contains 24 activities to help elementary teachers develop young students' global awareness and understanding. The activities are organized into five sections. The first presents three activities designed to stimulate student thinking about the importance of learning about other parts of the world and their relationship to these areas.

The remaining four sections of the book reflect the "four essential elements of study in a global education" proposed by Willard M. Kniep in *Social Education* (November/December 1986, pp. 536-542). These elements are:

- The study of human values (six activities)
- The study of global systems (five activities)
- The study of global issues and problems (five activities)
- The study of global history (five activities)

The activities are presented in a standard format, with each including the following sections: a brief introduction, a list of objectives, recommended grade level, an estimate of the time required to use the activity, a list of the materials needed, and step-by-step procedures. Some activities also include suggested follow-up exercises, a list of related resources, teacher background information, and/or masters for student handouts.

A list of resources for elementary teachers concludes the book.

I. INTRODUCING THE CONCEPT OF GLOBAL AWARENESS

Preparing students to participate in a global studies program having the components covered in the following four sections of this book—studying human values, studying global systems, studying global issues and problems, and studying global history—involves helping them understand the importance of learning about other parts of the world and their relationship to it. For the youngest students (grades K-3), this may involve little more than helping them understand that all people are alike in certain very basic ways; that is the aim of Activity 1. Older students (grades 3-6) can be helped to see that interdependence is an integral part of our world today; Activity 2 is designed to achieve that objective. Students in the upper elementary grades can also begin to assess their own global knowledge, examining its accuracy and determining where they gained this information. Activity 3 provides a means for students to look at their own views; this activity can serve as a baseline against which periodic comparisons can be made as students participate in activities from other sections of this book.

1. PEOPLE PUZZLES

Introduction:

This activity focuses on the idea that people have many of the same basic needs no matter where they live; those covered in the activity are food and water, shelter, love, and learning. The activity begins with a brief discussion of students' own perceived needs. Pairs or trios of students then work together to complete and report on "People Puzzles." On the basis of the puzzles, students conclude that all people have similar needs. This activity would fit well in social studies units related to any of the needs covered.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Use information from a picture to list four basic needs people have.

2. Explain that people have these needs no matter where they live.

3. Value the common ground that shared needs give all people.

Grade Level: K-3

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Copy the puzzle provided at the end of this activity. Make enough copies so that every two or three students can have a puzzle to work with. Glue each puzzle to a piece of cardboard and cut the pieces apart. You may want to put the pieces to each puzzle in a manila envelope. You will also need a world map or globe.

Procedure:

1. Define the word "needs" for students. Explain that a need is something people must have in order to live happy, healthy lives.

2. Ask students to brainstorm a list of things they need. After each item suggested, ask: Do you have to have that to live a happy, healthy life, or do you just want it?

3. Divide the class into pairs or groups of three. Give each a set of puzzle pieces and tell them to complete the puzzle.

4. When groups have completed their puzzles, ask them to read the names of the places given on the puzzles. Write these on the chalkboard and point them out on a world map or globe.

5. Next, ask students to describe what is shown in the pictures on the puzzles. As they mention items, ask if those items were on the list of their needs brainstormed earlier. Put a check next to each item. What do students think this shows? (People have the same needs no matter where they live.)

6. Ask students to think about this question: Which could they understand better: another person who has the same needs even though they have a different way of living or a space creature who does not need the same things as humans but does need an electric shock every hour and perfect silence for 10 hours every day? Let students share their ideas about this question.

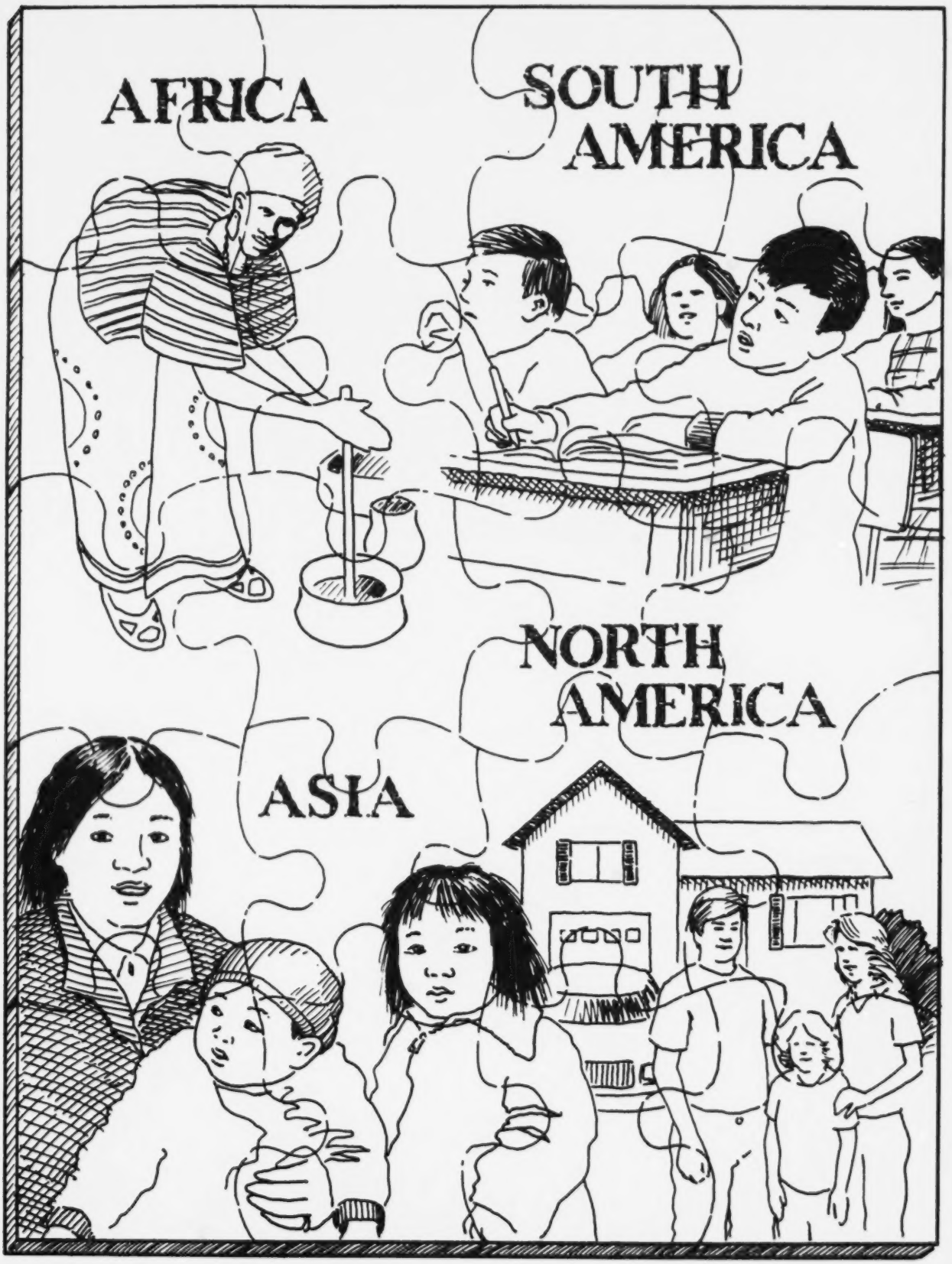
Activity developed by Laurel R. Singleton.

7. Explain that students will learn more about how people of the world are alike – but also different – and how they depend on each other as the year continues.

8. You may want to have students color the puzzles after the lesson has been completed.

Follow-up:

From the school library or media center, select an age-appropriate book about a child in another culture. Tell students that, as you read the story to them, they should listen for things that are the same about themselves and the child in the story and things that are different. Read the story aloud. Then discuss the likenesses and differences students observed.


AFRICA
SOUTH AMERICA
NORTH AMERICA
ASIA

2. YOUR GLOBAL HOME

Introduction:

This activity introduces students to the notion of interdependence by focusing on economic interdependence. Students first discuss and define key terms used in the lesson. They then read an economic products map showing raw materials exported from various nations. They identify examples of these products in the school. They then receive a manufactured products map, which they take home for use in a home inventory. They share results and construct a class bulletin board illustrating what they learned.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Define the following terms: *global, depend, trade, raw materials, manufactured goods.*

2. Identify raw materials and manufactured goods in their own school and home that might have come from another nation.

3. Read an economic products map.

4. Appreciate the economic contributions of various nations.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1 1/2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make enough copies of Handouts 2-1 and 2-2 for all students. Clear a bulletin board space for the activity-concluding project. You will need a large world map that you will not mind putting pins into, a number of pushpins, string, drawing materials, and a globe.

Procedure:

1. Display the globe and review what a globe shows. Ask students to speculate on what the word *global* might mean. (Involving the entire world) What would it mean if you asked about their "global home"? (It might mean the earth itself or it might mean their own homes, since they have items from all parts of the world in their homes.)

2. Ask why the fact that students have items from other parts of the world in their homes shows that we depend on other people around the world. (Because we need the items that we trade with them to get.) Do these people depend on us too? (Yes, because they need the items they buy with the money we use to purchase their goods.)

3. Distribute Handout 2-1. Help students interpret the map by reading its title and checking the key. Ask them to look for examples of the products shown on the map or goods made from those products in the classroom (they may include items from their lunches also). Post the items that they mention on the chalkboard.

4. Distribute Handout 2-2. Again, help students interpret the map. Be sure they understand the difference between raw materials and manufactured goods. Tell them that they are to look for examples of the manufactured goods shown on the map in their homes tonight. They may wish to bring in tags or labels from the items if possible.

Activity based on a lesson developed by Paul Mulloy.

5. Ask students to share the results of their home inventories. Again post the items they list on the chalkboard. If some students had few or no items, you may wish to discuss the idea that some people feel it is important to buy goods made by American workers and therefore try to avoid goods made in other countries.

6. Point out that there are also products shown on the United States on the two maps. What happens to these products? (Some are used in the United States and some are sold to other countries.)

7. Have students work in small groups to create a bulletin board showing the results of the class research. Each group can be assigned to a particular geographic area, or groups can each be assigned an equal number of items on the chalkboard list. Provide a large world map, pushpins, string, and drawing materials for student use in preparing the display.

Follow-up:

Have students conduct an economic interdependence scavenger hunt. Divide the class into groups of about four students. Assign each group three countries, preferably on three different continents. Tell students to look in their homes or local stores for products from those three countries. The first group to find at least two products from each of its countries is the winner.

WORLD PRODUCTS: SELECTED RAW MATERIALS

Key:

O	- Oil	W	- Wheat	R	- Rubber
●	- Coal	B	- Bananas	L	- Lumber
I	- Iron ore	▨	- Cacao	C	- Cotton
●	- Copper	△	- Lumber		
◇	- Diamonds	Wo	- Wool		

WORLD PRODUCTS: SELECTED MANUFACTURED GOODS

17

Key:

Tr	Transportation equipment	M	Machinery
C	Chemicals	E	Electronics
Tc	Textiles and clothing	I	Iron and steel products

16

3. WHAT DO YOU THINK OF...?

Introduction:

This activity is designed to help students assess their own level of knowledge and/or stereotyping about various world regions. Students are presented with a world map marked into regions. They are then asked to select words that describe each of these regions. The class responses are analyzed to determine how accurate students' views are, as well as where students obtained their information.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Identify ten regions on a world map.

2. Assess how accurate their views of these ten world regions are.

3. Recognize that information gained from some sources may be more accurate than information gained from other sources.

Grade Level: 5-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Make copies of Handouts 3-1 and 3-2 for all students. You will also need a world map and posting paper.

Procedure:

1. Ask students how much they think they know about other parts of the world. Where do they get most of their information? Do they think some sources of information are more accurate than others?

2. Explain that in this activity, students are going to have a chance to compare their views of ten world regions with those of their classmates. They will also have a chance to think about where they got their information.

3. Distribute Handout 3-1. Using a wall map to guide discussion, help students identify the ten regions shown on the map. The correct answers are:

A. Northern America
B. Latin America
C. Europe
D. North Africa and the Middle East
E. Southern Africa
F. U.S.S.R.
G. South Asia
H. East Asia
I. Southeast Asia
J. Australia and New Zealand

4. Next, ask students to pick two words or phrases from page 2 of the handout to describe each region. They should write these words after the name of the region in their list. They may use the same words more than once.

Activity based on lessons developed by Regina Conley, Jonas Clarke Junior High School, Lexington (MA), George Otero, and Tom Collins.

5. While students are doing this task, hang a posting sheet around the room for each region. As students complete the work, let them post their responses on the sheets.

6. Go over the posting sheets (you may want to select two or three regions on which to focus). Use the following questions to guide discussion:

- Did students have similar views of the regions? Why or why not?
- Where did students get their information? Where there were differences of opinion, which student's source might be regarded as more reliable? Why?
- Could two different views on the same area both be correct? Why or why not?
- Have you ever met a person from this region? Have you ever been to this region? How might this affect the accuracy of your judgments?
- Are your views on various regions positive or negative? How do you account for that?

7. Ask students to save their own assessments of the various regions. Tell them that as the year continues, they should keep track of how their views have changed, using Handout 3-2.

Follow-up:

Have each student pick the region about which he/she knows the least. Students should conduct research on their regions with the aim of proving or disproving one of their views on the region.

WORLD REGIONS

A.

B.

C.

D.

E.

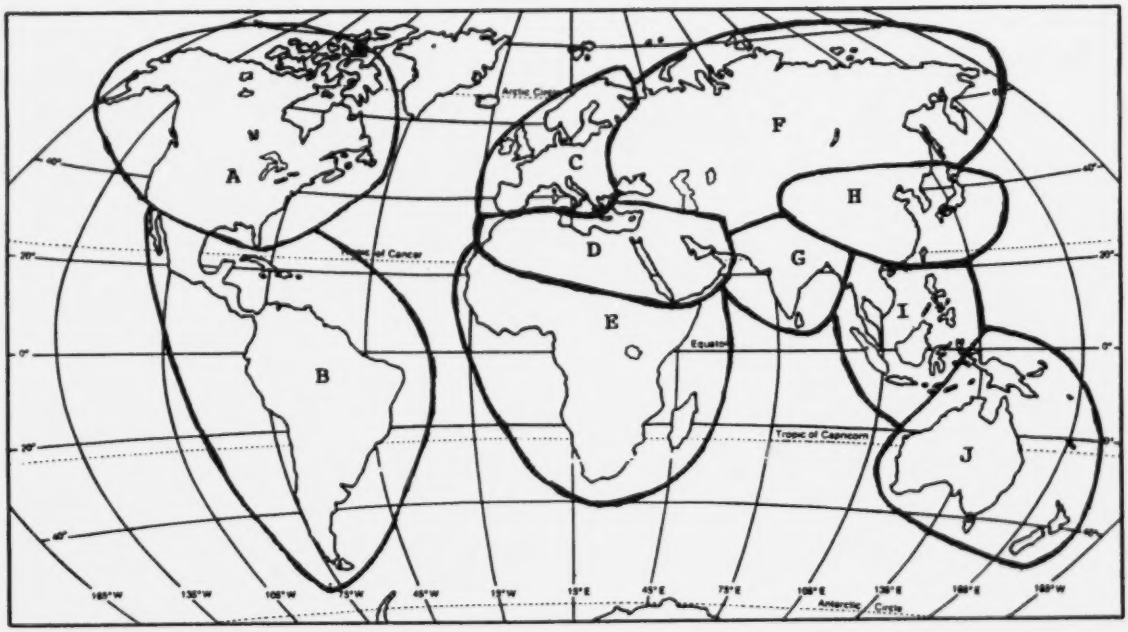
F.

G.

H.

I.

J.



full employment
strange
starvation
religious people
corrupt government
rapid change
developed
mineral wealth
dishonest police
universal education
patriotic citizens
oil shortage
close-knit families
enemy
politically unstable
widespread poverty
generation gap
excessive pollution
terrorism
democracy
developing
high taxes
high crime rate
warm, loving people
healthy people
well-regulated growth
missiles
peaceful
"big brother"
clean cities
racism
revolution
unfriendly
lack of freedom
highly skilled people
harsh drug laws
overpopulated
welfare state

CHANGING VIEWS

Keep track of how your views on each region change as you study the world. Also keep track of the sources of the information that helped change your views.

Northern America

Latin America

Europe

Middle East and North Africa

Southern Africa

U.S.S.R.

South Asia

East Asia

Southeast Asia

Australia and New Zealand

II. STUDYING HUMAN VALUES

Studying human values involves students in looking not only at those universal values that all humans share, but also at the diverse values that result from belonging to a particular culture. Thus, the activities in this section are designed to help young students examine the values they share with peoples of other cultures and the unique values of various cultures. They also learn about some of the many ways in which values are expressed. These include toys and folk tales (Activity 4), proverbs (Activity 5), literature (Activity 6), art (Activity 7), sports, specifically the Olympics (Activity 8), and school rules (Activity 9).

4. TOYS AND FOLK TALES

Introduction:

Children in all cultures have toys, but the kinds of toys vary depending on such factors as the materials available and the culture's values. Toys in many cultures are limited to folk tales, which also reflect values. In this activity, students compare toys from various cultures, listen to a folk tale related to one toy, and then write their own short folk tales about toys. This activity could be used in language arts, as well as social studies.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Give reasons why toys in different cultures are different.
2. Explain how a folk tale is related to a toy.
3. Identify a value embodied in a folk tale.

Grade Level: K-3

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Duplicate enough copies of the "Toy Catalog" so each pair of students can have one. Fold the "catalogs" as indicated, so they resemble small books. If desired, locate some of these (or other) sources of additional folk tales:

- Arkhurst, Joyce Cooper, *The Adventures of Spider* and *More Adventures of Spider* (New York: Scholastic, 1972).
- Briggs, Raymond, *The Fairy Tale Treasury* (New York: Dell, 1972).
- Dolch, Edward and Marguerite, *Stories from India* (Champaign, IL: Garrard, 1961).
- Durr, William K., *Spinners* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1982).
- Kirn, Ann, *Tale of a Crocodile* (New York: Norton, 1968).
- Logren, Ulf, *The Boy Who Ate More Than the Giant and Other Swedish Tales* (New York: World, 1978).
- Lum, Peter, *Fairy Tales of China* (New York: Cassell, 1959).
- Sakade, Florence, *Japanese Children's Favorite Stories* (Rutland, VT: Charles E. Tuttle, 1986).
- Whitney, Thomas P., *Vasilisa the Beautiful* (New York: Macmillan, 1970).
- Wyndham, Lee, *Tales the People Tell in Russia* (New York: Messner, 1970).

Procedure:

1. Pair students off and give each pair a "Toy Catalog." If students cannot read the descriptions, read them aloud with the class. Allow time for students to select the toys they would most like to have.

2. Discuss students' choices, focusing on the reasons for their choices. Ask the following questions:

   - How are these toys like your own toys?

Activity based on a unit developed by students in Jacqueline A. Abbott's course "The Young Child and the Curriculum: Social Studies," Spring 1987, Eastern Connecticut State University.

- How are they different?
- What can you learn about children by looking at their toys?
- Why are these toys made from the materials they are made from?
- Why do people have toys?

SPIDER AND THE MAGIC COOKING POT*

In the land of Ashanti, where Spider lived, there is neither winter nor summer. Instead, there is a dry time and a rainy time; and during the dry time, it is very hot and there is no rain at all.

Once long ago, before your grandmother was a little girl, there was a very long dry time. The rain did not come and there was little food for people to eat. Spider was hungry, and so were his wife and his children.

One day, Spider set out to look for something to eat. He walked for a day and a night. At last he came to the shore of the sea. He shaded his eyes and looked out over the water. There, a little way from the shore, was a tiny island. It had just one tree on it. The tree stood near the edge of the water and was covered with large green coconuts.

Spider's heart pounded. If only he could reach the island! Those beautiful coconuts would be filled with milk, and their meat would be fine and sweet.

Suddenly Spider saw a small boat lying on the shore. He pushed it into the sea and rowed toward the island.

"What a strange little island," Spider said to himself when he reached the shore. "There seems to be magic about it."

In no time, Spider climbed the tree and began to pick the huge nuts. He tried to drop them into the little boat. But each nut fell into the sea instead. He tried again and again, but the nuts splashed down into the water and disappeared.

Finally, Spider could stand it no longer. He jumped into the water. Perhaps he could find one or two nuts. To his surprise, he sank deeper and deeper. Something pulled him down—down into the blue-green water until he reached the very bottom of the sea.

*From *More Adventures of Spider*, by Joyce Cooper Arkhurst (New York: Scholastic, 1972). Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

There, in front of him, was a little house made of sea shells, and in the doorway stood an old, old man.

"My name is Thunder," said the old man, "and I am king here. Who are you, and why have you come to my island?"

Spider told Thunder about the dry season, and how he and his family had nothing to eat. The old man felt sorry for Spider and kindly offered to help him. He went inside the little house made of sea shells. In a moment he returned carrying a small black cooking pot.

"Take this pot," he said, "and rub it. Then wait a moment, and say to it, 'Do whatever you would do for the old man Thunder.' The pot will give you all the food you can eat."

Spider was overjoyed. He rubbed the pot and said, "Do whatever you would do for the old man Thunder!"

At once, the pot was filled with delicious food. There was steaming rice and cassava and meat. Spider ate until he could eat no more. And then he started the long journey back to his village, thinking how happy his family would be.

But as he got closer to home, he began to change his mind. And the closer he got, the more his mind changed.

"Why should I share this wonderful pot with anyone?" Spider said to himself. "I shall hide it in a secret place and keep it all for myself."

And that is just what Spider did. He took the magic pot deep into the forest. He dug a hole and put the pot in it and covered the hole with leaves. At night, when everyone was asleep, he took the pot out and ate to his heart's content.

Time passed. Spider's eldest son, Kuma, began to notice that Spider was getting fatter. He was getting fatter and fatter, while everyone else got thinner and thinner. How could this be? Kuma decided to find out.

Kuma turned himself into a fly and followed Spider wherever he went. Of course, he soon discovered the magic pot. He discovered the magic words too.

One day when Spider was out, Kuma told Aso, his mother, about the wonderful pot. Aso took the pot from its hiding place. She rubbed it and waited a moment. Then she said, "Do for me whatever you would do for the old man Thunder." At once the pot was filled with food. Aso and all her children had a delicious meal.

Then Aso took the pot to the marketplace in the middle of the village. She asked it to feed the whole village, because everyone there was hungry. The little pot tried to do so, but this was too much for it. Alas, it melted away and disappeared altogether.

How angry Spider would be! Aso and Kuma decided not to tell Spider what had happened. That night when Spider went to get the pot, he could not find it. He looked everywhere. Poor Spider went to bed hungry.

The very next morning, Spider hurried to the island, to ask the old man for another pot. He traveled very fast, and soon came to the same island and the same small boat as before. He rowed to the island and jumped into the water. Down he went to the bottom of the sea. There, as before, was the little shell house with the old man standing in the doorway.

Spider told him the story of the lost pot. He asked the old man to help him again.

"Did your wife and your children enjoy the good food from my pot?" asked the old man.

Spider was ashamed. He could not answer--he only looked down at his feet.

Without a word, the old man went into the house. When he came back, he was carrying a large stick. He gave it to Spider and told him to rub it just as he had done with the pot.

"And then," said the old man, "you must say, 'Do for me what you would do for the old man Thunder.'"

Spider took the stick eagerly, hardly stopping to thank the old man. As soon as he was in the boat, he rubbed the stick and cried, "Do for me what you would do for the old man Thunder!"

At once the stick began to beat him.

"Stop! Stop! Stop!" cried Spider, but the stick paid no attention. It continued to spank him soundly.

"Stop that, you rascal!" Spider shouted. But the stick kept right on spanking him. It gave him a sound thrashing. At last, Spider jumped straight out of the boat and into the cool water. He swam back to land as fast as he could. He never looked back. He never saw the stick or the island or the old man Thunder again. And he never found another magic pot.

3. Tell students you are going to read a folk tale—a story handed down from parents to children in a culture—related to one of the toys. Read "Spider and the Magic Cooking Pot."

4. Discuss the story, using the following questions to guide discussion:

- Which toy represents a character from the folk tale?
- What happened to Spider in the story?
- Why do you think the old man gave Spider a stick that hit him?
- Do you think the people of Ghana believe that sharing is important?
- Why do you think children in Ghana play with a Spider toy even though Spider does some nasty things?

5. Ask students to write a short "folk tale" about one of the other toys in the "catalog" or about one of their own toys.

Follow-up:

Read other folk tales to students, helping them analyze the values presented. Students might use native materials of your region to make toys based on their own favorite stories.

Spider

From Ghana in Africa.

Made of paper or wood.

A friendly face!

Nesting dolls
9 dolls in one!

Carved and painted
in Poland.

TOY CATALOG

Bamboo snake
Made in Jamaica.

It moves and twists.
Light and easy to carry.

Scare your friends.

Japanese lantern
Very colorful.

The sun shining through
the paper is beautiful.

5. THE WISDOM OF PROVERBS

Introduction:

The folk wisdom of countries around the world reveals many of the commonalities shared by people regardless of the cultures in which they live. This card-sort activity provides students with an opportunity to examine proverbs from many nations and discuss the values they represent.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Understand that proverbs reflect the values of a culture.

2. Cite proverbs from other cultures that reflect the same values as American proverbs.

3. Value proverbs as a source of wisdom.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Make enough sets of the Proverb Cards so that each group of four or five students will have a set.

Procedure:

1. Ask students if their parents or grandparents use such phrases as "A stitch in time saves nine" or "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush." What are these sayings called? (Proverbs) Explain that proverbs are popular sayings that reflect a particular value. For example, the proverb "A penny saved is a penny earned" reflects the value of frugality or saving.

2. Encourage students to brainstorm as long a list of proverbs as they can.

3. Ask students whether they think other cultures have proverbs. (Yes) Tell students that not only do other cultures have proverbs, they have proverbs that reflect the same values as many of our own proverbs. For example, a Chinese proverb says that "Many a good man is to be found under a shabby hat." What American proverb is this similar to? ("Don't judge a book by its cover.") What value do these two proverbs reflect? (Looking beneath the surface to judge the value of something)

4. Explain that students are going to be working in small groups to match proverbs that reflect the same or similar values. Divide the class into groups of four or five students. Give each group a set of the Proverb Cards. Students are to sort the cards into groups reflecting similar values. They may first want to sort out the American proverbs and then match the proverbs from other nations to these.

5. When students have completed the sorting, ask them to write the value represented by each group of proverbs on a piece of paper. The groupings and values students should come up with are as follows:

- Proverbs 1, 4, 5, and 10 represent the values of using time well and/or punctuality.
- Proverbs 3, 6, 9, and 11 represent the value of patience or long, hard work to create something worthwhile.
- Proverbs 2, 7, 8, and 12 represent the value of being rewarded for your deeds (or misdeeds!).

Activity developed by Laurel R. Singleton, Bruce Tipple, and Paul Mulloy.

6. In their groups, have students pick a value that they think people in other countries would share and create a proverb that reflects that value. As an alternative, younger students might illustrate their favorite proverbs.

Follow-up:

Ask each student to pick a proverb he/she believes is especially wise. The proverb may be one from this activity, but it does not have to be. Students should write paragraphs explaining why the proverbs they selected are their favorites. Ask students to share and discuss their papers with the class. Handout 5-1 provides some additional proverbs for use in this follow-up activity.

1. A horse that arrives early gets good drinking water. (Africa)

2. Young gambler, old beggar. (Germany)

3. By trying often, the monkey learns to jump from the tree. (Zaire)

4. The early bird gets the worm. (United States)

5. You will gain three moons if you wake up early in the morning. (Japan)

6. Little by little grow the bananas. (Benin)

7. As ye sow, so shall ye reap. (United States)

8. If one plants melons, one gets melons. (China)

9. From little oaks, mighty acorns grow. (United States)

10. Joy, moderation, and rest shut out the doctors. (Germany)

11. Ice three feet thick isn't frozen in a day. (China)

12. He who sows nettles does not reap roses. (Africa)

MORE WISDOM FROM PROVERBS

1. Chickens always come home to roost. (United States)
2. Where the river is deepest, it makes the least noise. (Italy)
3. You cannot get two skins from one cow. (England)
4. A bird in the hand is worth a hundred flying. (Mexico)
5. He who stands with his feet on two ships will be drowned. (Soviet Union)
6. The water which fell from the plate will not go back. (Japan)
7. Pat any man and dust will fly. (Korea)
8. To begin is to be half done. (Korea)

6. A WORLD OF FICTION: GLOBAL INSIGHTS IN LITERATURE

Introduction:

A vast wealth of well-written children's literature is set in areas of the world studied in the elementary grades. Not only can children learn important social studies concepts through reading such works of fiction, they can also achieve a better understanding of the impact of geography and history when they see that impact on characters in whom they are interested. This activity—which is not an activity in the same sense as others in this book—provides materials and strategies for use in a "World of Fiction" learning center that can help teachers capitalize on these advantages. Completion of the learning center activities will support both the language arts and social studies curricula.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Analyze a work of fiction using a prepared study guide.
2. Make generalizations about a culture based on a work of fiction.
3. Compare a culture with their own culture.

Grade Level: 5-6

Time Required: Ongoing

Materials and Preparation: Set aside an area in the classroom as a "World of Fiction" learning center. Hang a large world map. Provide a supply of paper arrows, which students can use to show where the novels they read are set. Duplicate a number of the study guides (Handout 6-1) and place them in the center. Gather a selection of novels set in other cultures. A few recent titles are listed below, although there are, of course, many others. The school librarian/media specialist can help you make appropriate selections.

1. Ashabranner, Brent, *Gabriel and Jemal: Two Boys of Jerusalem* (New York: Dodd, 1984).
2. Hertz, Ole, *Tobias Goes Ice Fishing* (Minneapolis, MN: Carolrhoda, 1984).
3. Howard, Ellen, *When Daylight Comes* (New York: Atheneum, 1985).
4. Lewin, Hugh, *Jafta—The Journey* (Minneapolis, MN: Carolrhoda, 1984).
5. Mattingley, Christobel, *The Miracle Tree* (New York: Gulliver, 1986).
6. Naidoo, Beverley, *Journey to Jo'burg: A South African Story* (New York: Lippincott, 1986).
7. Sender, Ruth Minsky, *The Cage* (New York: Macmillan, 1986).
8. Sherman, Eileen Bluestone, *Monday in Odessa* (New York: Jewish Publication Society, 1986).
9. Sullivan, Mary Ann, *Child of War* (New York: Holiday, 1984).
10. Thompson, Brian, *The Story of Prince Rama* (New York: Viking, 1985).

Activity based on a unit developed by Audrey J. Friend, Jonas Clarke Middle School, Lexington, MA, and Karen Thompson, Shepherd Hill Regional School, Dudley, MA.

11. Vogel, Ilse-Margaret, *Tikhon* (New York: Harper, 1984).

12. Watson, James, *Talking in Whispers* (New York: Fawcett, 1984).

13. Yolen, Jane, *Children of the Wolf* (New York: Viking, 1984).

Procedure:

1. Explain to students that they can learn a great deal about other cultures by reading stories about people in those cultures.

2. Introduce the materials in the learning center, explaining that each student is to read one or more books (the librarian/media specialist can provide more suggestions) and complete a study guide on each.

3. Provide class time several weeks later for students to share their findings.

Follow-up:

Continue the reading center throughout the year, working with the librarian/media specialist to keep a fresh supply of books in the center.

WORLD OF FICTION STUDY GUIDE

Title of your book: _____

Author: _____

1. Who were the main characters in the story? Describe their relationship to one another.

_____

_____

_____

2. Briefly summarize the book's plot (story). Be sure to tell what the climax—the high point of the story—was.

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. Where was the story set? _____

4. Describe some aspect of the geographic setting that was important to the story.

_____

_____

5. When did the story take place? _____

6. Name one historical event (such as World War II) or aspect of culture (such as apartheid) that was important to the story.

_____

_____

7. Name three ways in which the culture described in the story is like your own culture.

_____

_____

8. List three ways in which the culture in the story is different from your own culture.

_____

_____

_____

9. How would you summarize the culture in the story, based on what you read?

_____

_____

_____

10. What else would you like to know about this culture?

_____

_____

_____

11. Did the story show how people in one culture depend on people in other parts of the world? If so, how?

_____

_____

_____

12. What was the author's purpose in writing the story? What does he or she want you to know, think, or do?

_____

_____

_____

13. Rate the story on a scale of one (poor) to ten (outstanding). Give a reason for your rating.

_____

_____

7. ART AND VALUES

Introduction:

The content and form of a culture's art can tell us something about the values of that culture. Furthermore, we can see similarities in cultures by looking at the values that serve as themes for their art. In this activity, students look at one particular theme—appreciation for nature—although the activity could be adapted for others. The activity opens with students drawing their own pictures relating to the theme. They then discuss their creations and compare them with examples of art related to nature from two other cultures. This activity can be used in art or social studies.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Understand that the things we think are important may be reflected in our art.

2. Compare and contrast differing artistic styles.

3. Draw generalizations about what a culture thinks is important by examining an example of its art.

Grade Level: K-6

Time Required: 2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Ask the librarian/media specialist or art teacher for assistance in locating reproductions of two paintings of nature: one by a Japanese artist focusing on a single flower or branch and one in the style of the French impressionists showing people in a meadow. Students will need drawing or painting materials; you may wish to provide a variety of media for their use. A selection of books showing art reproductions from various cultures would be a useful resource for the activity.

Procedure:

1. Explain to students that works of art often show what we think is important in life. For example, many cultures have produced paintings of mothers and children. What does this show about a culture?

2. Ask students to prepare a piece of art that shows how they feel about nature. Encourage students to use whatever form and medium will best express their thoughts and feelings on the theme. Allow the remainder of the class period for students to complete their pieces.

3. Post students' work around the room. For the first ten minutes of the next class period, turn your classroom into an art gallery. Let students examine each other's work. Tell them to look for similarities and differences, both in terms of what the paintings show and the style in which they were drawn. The level at which you will have students examine style will depend on grade level. With younger students, you may look only at the colors used, while older students could look at whether the drawings focus on a small area or show a large scene, use bold, strong lines or soft, round contours, etc.

4. Discuss the similarities and differences students observed. What was the theme of most of the works? (Probably an appreciation for the beauty of nature) Did any works have other themes? (Possibly fear of the power of nature, desolation in winter or desert)

Activity developed by Bruce Tipple, Paul Mulloy, and Laurel R. Singleton.

5. Tell students that every culture includes appreciation of nature in its artwork. Show students the two art reproductions you have selected. How are the styles from Japan and France similar? How are they different? What might the fact that the Japanese-style drawing focuses on a small scene tell us about that culture? (The Japanese value small things, they value the ability to look closely at something.) What might the fact that the French-style drawing includes a much larger scene with a person in it tell us about that culture? (The French value the peacefulness that a person finds in nature, that all the parts of nature fit together.)

6. Conclude the activity by asking students to write a sentence summarizing how art shows the values of a culture.

Follow-up:

Provide books of art reproductions for students to examine. How many themes can they identify in the works? Are there some themes that are present in the work of only one or a few countries? What themes are most common? Which styles do they like best? Why?

8. FASTER, STRONGER, HIGHER: VALUES AND THE OLYMPICS

Introduction:

The Olympics as a whole represent universal values of competition and fitness. Individual events represent more specific values, which may have been more important at other times in history; for example, throwing the javelin was at one time a survival skill, as it provided food. In this activity, students learn about the values reflected by Olympic events while practicing their research skills. The activity could be used in physical education or social studies.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Identify the values represented by the Olympic Games.

2. Identify the values represented by particular Olympic events.

3. Locate and present information answering specific questions on a particular Olympic event.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 2 class periods, plus research time

Materials and Preparation: Copy the list of Olympic events and cut the items apart so that you can give each pair of students one event. Make a copy of Handout 8-1 for each pair. Ask the librarian/media specialist to help you identify resources on the Olympics and sports. You may want to bring some of these to the classroom or arrange for students to visit the library or media center. Students will also need poster paper and drawing materials for use in developing their displays.

Procedure:

1. Ask students why athletes want to compete in the Olympic Games. (To show that they are the best, to meet athletes from all around the world) Is this true for athletes from all countries? (Yes) Could we say that people in all countries value the spirit of competition, fitness or athletic skill, and the chance to meet people from other nations? (Yes)

2. Ask if students know how the Olympic Games got started. Explain that the first Olympic Games of which there are records were in 776 B.C. They consisted of only one event—a race. What value does a foot race represent? (Speed) Why might speed have been important in ancient times? (To escape from enemies, to carry messages quickly)

3. Ask students if they can think of any other events that might have been important to survival in olden times. (Javelin throw, marathon running, jumping, hammer throw)

4. Tell students that the modern Olympics were started in 1896. They were established through the efforts of a French educator named Baron Pierre de Coubertin. He believed that the Olympics could lead to people from countries around the world understanding each other better. Since then, the Olympics have grown, with many new events having been added.

5. Tell students that they are going to research some of the events that are part of the modern Olympics. Have students work in pairs. Give each pair one event and a copy of Handout 8-1. Go over the instructions with students. Then allow the rest of the class period for research.

Activity based on a lesson developed by George Carr, Jonas Clarke Junior High School, Lexington (MA).

6. On the due date, have each pair of students make a two-minute presentation on their event. The chart below gives basic information on the events included in the activity.

OLYMPIC EVENTS

	Where Invented	Winter or Summer	Equipment	Team or Individual
Marathon run	Greece	Summer	None	Individual
Ski jumping	Scandinavia	Winter	Skis	Individual
Basketball	United States	Summer	Ball, hoops	Team
Water polo	England	Summer	Ball, goals	Team
Bobsled racing	Switzerland	Winter	Sled	Both
Pentathlon	Greece	Summer		Both
Backstroke	United States	Summer	None	Individual
Boxing	Greece/Italy	Summer	Gloves	Individual
Gymnastics	Greece	Summer	Beams, rings, bars, pommel horse, vault	Both
Fencing	Egypt	Summer	Foils, masks, pads	Both
Ice hockey	Canada	Winter	Skates, pads, sticks, puck	Team
Figure skating	Northern Europe	Winter	Skates	Individual or Pair
Soccer	England	Summer	Ball, goals	Team
Judo	China	Summer	None	Individual
Show jumping	Europe	Summer	Horse, saddle, bridle, boots, whip	Both
Rowing	Egypt	Summer	Boat, oars	Both
Javelin throw	Greece	Summer	Javelin	Individual
Cross-country skiing	Scandinavia	Winter	Skis, poles	Individual

7. When all groups have made their presentations, discuss the range of values represented in the various events. What would be a good motto for the Olympics? After students have suggested a number of possibilities, you may wish to tell them that the motto of the Games is "Citius, Altius, Fortius" – Faster, Higher, Stronger.

Follow-up:

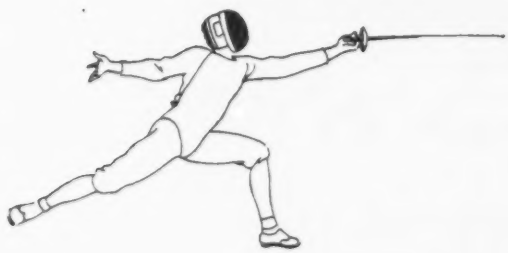
Younger students might compile a complete list of the events included in the summer and winter Olympics. They might also create a world map showing the sites for the summer and winter games for the past several Olympiads. Older students could research how politics has become part of the games, from the massacre in Munich in 1972 to the African boycott in 1976, the U.S. boycott in 1980, the Soviet boycott in 1984, and the Cuban boycott in 1988. Do students think that the Olympics should involve politics? Why or why not?

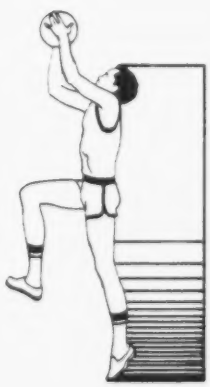
RESEARCH PROJECT DIRECTIONS

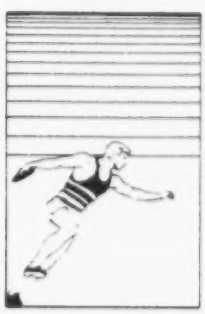
You are to prepare a poster and a two-minute talk about your Olympic event. You will have until _____ to complete the assignment. Your teacher or the librarian will help you locate materials that will provide the information you need.

You should find answers to at least five of the following questions:

1. In what country was your event invented?
2. Is your event part of the winter or summer Olympics?
3. What special equipment or clothing is needed for your event?
4. Is your event a team sport or an individual sport?
5. What skills are needed to be good at your event?
6. What values does your event represent?
7. Who won your event at the last Olympics?







9. SCHOOL RULES AROUND THE WORLD

Introduction:

School is a common experience for young people all around the world. One of the important goals of schooling is to teach children the values and social norms of their culture and nation. In this activity, students examine rules from schools in three different countries: Japan, China, and the Soviet Union. They compare these sets of rules to rules established in their own classroom or school. In so doing, students identify practices, values, and ideals shared by nations around the world. They also analyze how rules reflect cultural and national differences.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Discuss the purpose of school rules in the functioning of the school and in the education of children.

2. Identify commonalities and differences in the rules that govern classrooms in four different countries, including the United States.

3. Appreciate values, expectations, and customs shared across cultures while respecting national and cultural differences.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1-2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make enough copies of Handout 9-1, 9-2, and 9-3 for one-third of the class to get each handout. Also make copies of your classroom or school rules if they exist in written form.

Procedure:

1. Write the following statement on the chalkboard: "No talking while the teacher is talking." (You may substitute for this rule any other explicit or understood rule important in your own classroom.) Ask students what this statement represents. (A rule) What is a rule? What do students think are the reasons for establishing a rule such as this classroom rule, family rules, or local or national laws? Lead students towards an understanding that rules help people who live, play, or work together get along. Rules provide guidelines for how people should behave, what they can or can't do, and so on.

2. Ask the class to give other examples of rules that they follow in your class or in the school building. How do they know what the rules are? Are some rules written down for all students to see? Are some rules spoken? Understood?

3. Once the definition and purpose of rules has been established, ask students what rules can show about the group of people that makes them and follows them. Refer to the rule written on the chalkboard. Based on this rule, what is important in your classroom? (No talking rule—courtesy, respect for the teacher, respect for authority, importance of learning)

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

4. Explain that students will work in small groups to examine school or classroom rules from three different countries—Japan, China, and the Soviet Union. Each handout presents an actual example of rules in a particular country. However, students should be cautioned that, just as in the United States, school rules may vary from place to place within a country and that they are looking at just one example.

5. Divide the class into three working groups and distribute one of the three school rules sheets (Handout 9-1, 9-2, or 9-3) to each group. After reading through the set of rules from their assigned country, each group should divide their list of rules into two categories: those rules that are similar to rules they have or would expect to see (follow) in their own school or classroom, and those rules that would seem strange or out of place in their school.

6. Call the class back together. Allow each group to report on its findings. List responses on the board under two headings: similar rules, dissimilar rules.

7. When all groups have reported, turn students' attention to the list of similar rules. What does each rule indicate about the people or society who made it and follow it? What is important to people who make and follow such a rule? Based on student responses, what common values, beliefs, practices, or customs seem to exist across these nations and cultures? Are students surprised at these similarities? Do students think such things would be important no matter what country a person lived in? Why or why not?

8. Turn to the rules students felt to be dissimilar to U.S. school rules. Discuss why each rule seemed strange to the students. Would some of these rules be difficult to enforce in your classroom? In many U.S. schools? Why? What do these rules say about the people or society that made them—that is, what things are important to them? Ask students to formulate hypotheses concerning differences between the United States and these three other nations based on school rules.

Follow-up:

As an extension activity, select one set of school rules from the three examples and have students simulate these rules in their own classroom for a day or week. Have students discuss or write a composition explaining what it felt like to follow the school rules of another country.

CLASSROOM RULES IN A JAPANESE SCHOOL

1. Remove your shoes as you enter the school. Place your shoes in your own cubbyhole in the front hallway and put on school slippers.

2. When the teacher first enters the classroom, rise and bow to the teacher. Greet the teacher altogether, saying *ohayo sensei* (good morning, teacher).

3. Come to school prepared with pencils, erasers, pens, paper, and textbooks.

4. Raise your hand to answer questions. When called upon, stand before answering.

5. Be quiet during class time.

6. At the end of the day, help clean your classroom, school halls, and schoolyard. All trash must be picked up, the floors and yard swept, and chairs stacked before students may leave the school.

SCHOOL RULES IN CHINA

1. Do not be late to class. Do not miss school.
2. Be cooperative. Show group spirit. Work together with your classmates.
3. Respect your teachers.
4. Listen carefully in class.
5. Be courteous at all times. Do not fight.
6. Protect school property.
7. Do all homework carefully.
8. Participate in extracurricular activities.
9. Obey school rules.
10. Do not do anything harmful to your country.

RULES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN IN THE SOVIET UNION

It is the duty of every school child to:

1. Become an educated citizen and serve the nation.
2. Never be late to class.
3. Obey without question the orders of teachers and the principal.
4. Bring to school all books, paper, and pencils.
5. Appear at school washed, combed, and neatly dressed.
6. Keep your desk clean.
7. Enter the classroom and take your seat as soon as the bell rings.
8. Never enter or leave class without teacher's permission.
9. Stand as the teacher enters or leaves the room.
10. Stand straight while reciting; raise hand to answer or ask a question.
11. Make notes of all assignments, show notes to parents, do all homework without help.
12. Greet teachers and principal on the street with a bow.
13. Be polite to elders.
14. Take good care of school property.
15. Be courteous to little children, the aged, the weak, and the sick. Help them in every way.
16. Obey parents and assist in care of little brothers and sisters.
17. Always carry your school identification card.
18. Honor your school and class.
19. Never use bad language, smoke cigarettes, or gamble.
20. Memorize all school rules.

III. STUDYING GLOBAL SYSTEMS

Many global studies programs focus on interdependence without explicitly dealing with the notion of systems—yet it is through systems of various kinds that we experience interdependence. The first activity in this section introduces the concept; the remaining four activities deal with examples of four different kinds of systems—economic, political, technological, and ecological. Because global systems may seem abstract to young learners, each activity deals with specifics before focusing on how these specifics relate to a system. The activities on economic and political systems also extend students' understanding of values.

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10. SYSTEMS, SYSTEMS, SYSTEMS

Introduction:

The earth operates as a huge system of interrelated subsystems. In recent years, the complexity and pervasiveness of many of these systems have made us more aware of their importance. In this activity, students learn about the interconnections of world systems by charting the systems that produced common household products.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Define *global systems*.

2. Identify the types, components, and interactions of systems.

3. Recognize the importance of systems in the modern world.

Grade Level: 5-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: You will need an ample supply of poster paper and crayons or markers.

Procedure:

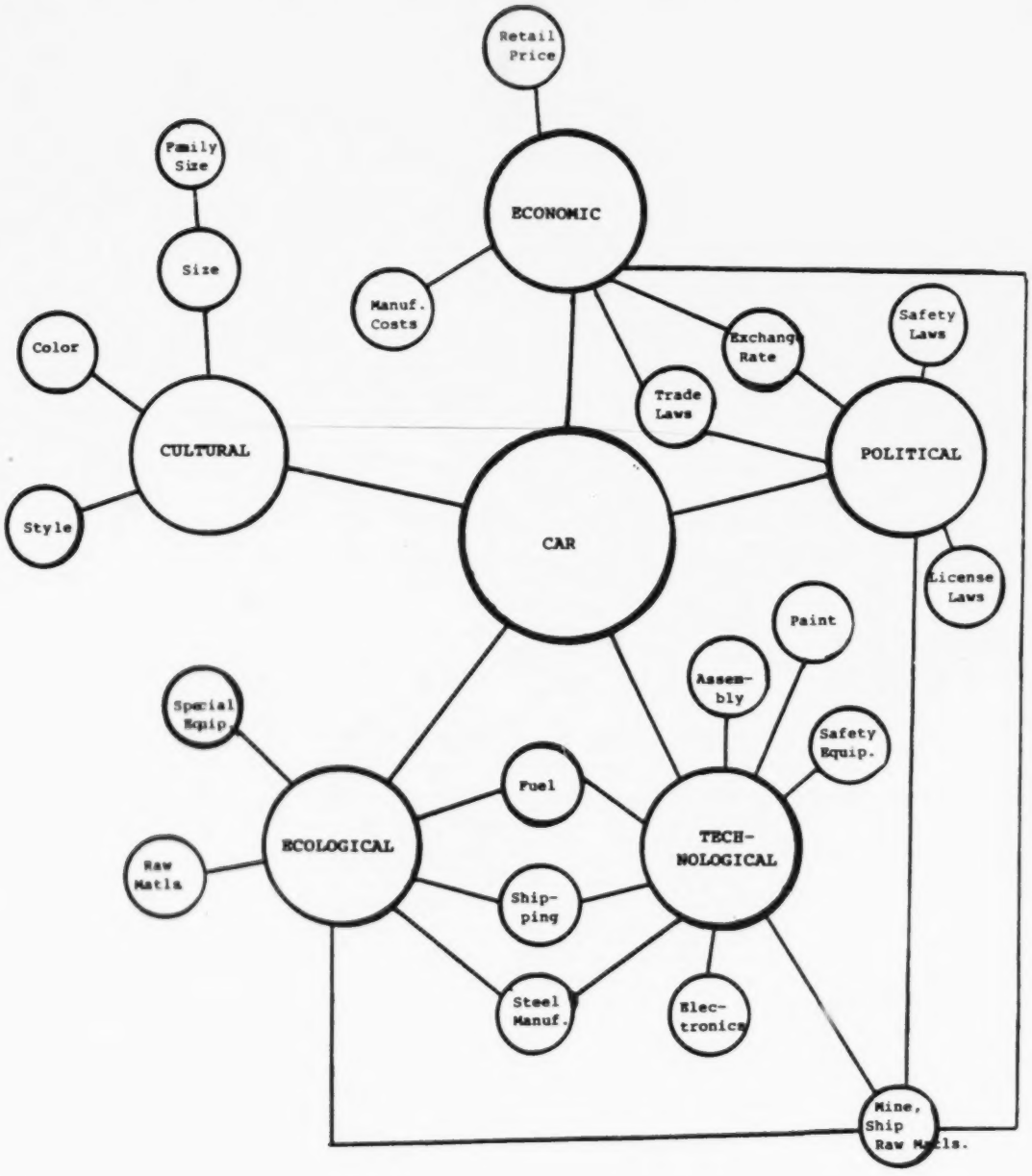
1. Inform students that they will be learning about global systems. Write the term *global systems* on the board. Have students define each element of the term, starting with *global*. Student definitions of *system* should tend toward: "a group of related parts that work together for a common purpose." Unify the two concepts by pointing out that large systems that interact across large areas of the world are global systems. Illustrate this with an example, such as an imported car. Trace the sources of raw materials from Europe and the United States to Japan; the delivery of the finished product to the United States; the delivery of the car to the new owner. As you discuss this example, make a web diagram on the board to illustrate the ideas of systems and "connections."

2. As you discuss the "Global Car System," ask students to listen for different types of systems involved in producing and selling the car. Few items in the world are connected to only one, or even two, systems. Students may identify the following: technological systems, economic systems, political systems, cultural systems, and ecological systems.

3. Post each of the types of systems on the board. Briefly indicate the major focus of each category: Technological – the "hardware" of the system, the electrical or mechanical aspects; Political – the connections between governments or individuals and governments; Economic – the trade and money connections; Cultural – the shared customs, languages, art, religion, etc.; Ecological – the physical connections of water, land mass, and climate.

4. Divide the class into groups of four to six students. Have each group choose one familiar product. Typical products could include: portable tape players, records, items of clothing, music groups, food items, newspaper stories, sports, etc. On a large sheet of poster paper, each group should draw a web diagram that illustrates the many systems that connect their chosen item to the rest of the world. One suggested format is illustrated on the next page. Students might also include a map of the world that traces the worldwide connections.

Activity developed by Robert D. LaRue, Jr.



5. Be sure to allow time for groups to share their webs with the class.

Follow-up:

Have students read the front page of the newspaper for one week. They should make a list of all the examples of global systems they find in the stories on the front page. They should then classify the systems represented as technological, political, economic, cultural, or ecological. Which kinds of systems make the news most often? Why do students think this is true?

11. MONEY TALKS: USING FOREIGN CURRENCIES TO LEARN ABOUT OTHERS

Introduction:

What can we learn about another country by looking at that nation's currency? To introduce this lesson, students first examine their own currency and develop hypotheses about the images found on American dollars. Students follow this inquiry by comparing what they know about their own currency with an investigation of currencies found in Kenya and the People's Republic of China. They close the lesson by stating what can be learned about a foreign country by examining that nation's currency.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Hypothesize about what people in a given nation consider to be important, using images found on that nation's currency.

2. Compare and contrast images on U.S. currency with those found on foreign currency.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1-2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make enough copies of Handouts 11-1 and 11-2 for half the class. Bring in examples of U.S. paper currency—one, five, ten, and twenty dollar bills (or photocopies). You will also need posting paper, marking pens, and a world map.

Procedure:

1. Explain to students that in this lesson they will learn something about other nations in the world by looking at the currency that citizens in those nations use. First, however, they will take an in-depth look at the currency used in their own country.

2. Divide the class into small groups comprised of four to five students. Give each group one of the following: a one, five, ten, or twenty dollar bill. Provide newsprint and markers to each student group. Allow several minutes for groups to list all the information about the United States they can find on the currency. (Possible student responses: *one dollar*—George Washington, the Great Seal of the U.S., the signatures of the U.S. treasurer and the secretary of the treasury, an eagle, some Latin words; *five dollars*—Abraham Lincoln, Lincoln Memorial, official signatures; *ten dollars*—Alexander Hamilton (the nation's first secretary of the treasury), the U.S. treasury building, official signatures; *twenty dollars*—Andrew Jackson, the White House, official signatures. (In addition, engraved on each of the currencies are the words, "In God We Trust," and the serial number for that particular bill.)

3. To debrief this part of the lesson, combine student lists, noting similarities and differences among groups. What does this information reveal about the United States? For example, what famous people are depicted on our money? Do students know when these famous people lived and what contributions they made to our country? Do we consider any to be national heroes? Assist students in drawing conclusions about the historical significance of the figures depicted on our currency. Reach a class consensus in which students agree that if something or someone is printed on a nation's currency, it is safe to assume that such an image, the message that a particular image conveys, and the underlying value reflected in a particular image are probably very meaningful to the people living in that nation.

Activity developed by Jacquelyn Johnson.

4. For this part of the lesson, distribute Handout 11-1 to half of the groups formed for the first part of this lesson and Handout 11-2 to the remaining half. On a large world map, ask students to locate the nations from which the currencies on these handouts are given. Students should see that the handouts contain currencies from Africa (Kenya) and Asia (China). Ask students to identify the words these two nations use for their currency. (Kenya – shillings; China – yuan)

5. Instruct student groups to compile a list of all the information contained on the foreign currencies on their handout. Remind students that the images printed on foreign currency may also reflect important values.

6. Debrief this part of the lesson using the information about each currency provided in the teacher background information.

7. To close the lesson, students should list all the information they think they could find out about a country by examining that country's currency.

8. Remind students of the definition of a system. Currency is part of a nation's economic system. Since every nation has its own currency, how does the economic system between countries work? Allow students to speculate. Then explain the idea of an exchange rate, which tells how much of one country's currency can be traded for a certain amount of another country's currency. Ask students the following questions:

- What would people gain by having one currency for all nations? (Simpler relations among countries)
- What would people lose by having one currency for all nations? (Currency would not reflect the values of each nation)

Follow-up:

1. To extend the lesson, ask students to bring to class examples of other foreign coins or currency to make additional comparisons with the currencies included in this lesson.

2. Using current exchange rates listed in the newspaper, students can calculate the U.S. dollar equivalent for the currency of other nations in the world.

Teacher Background Information:

The following notes cover some of the observations students could make based on the currency shown on the handouts. Detailed study of the currency could reveal even more information about each nation.

Kenya: The following items appear on each Kenyan shilling:

1. An important person. Students should see that the same individual, Daniel Arap Moi, is depicted on all shilling notes. Students can compare this image with the figures depicted on U.S. money (for example, Washington and Lincoln). Students can use the clothing worn by Washington and Moi to begin this comparison. Explain to students that Moi is the current president of Kenya. Why would a current president be shown on a nation's currency? What can this tell us about Kenya? Explain to students that Kenya gained independence in 1963. Kenya can be considered a relatively "new" independent nation in the world.

2. Languages. Can students hypothesize from whom Kenya gained independence? To assist them, point to the language printed on Kenyan shillings ("Central Bank of Kenya," "legal tender," etc.). Ask students to hypothesize about the reasons why the English language is used on an African nation's currency. Guide students to conclude that the use of the English language can be considered a "leftover"

from Africa's colonial period. The foreign words used on the shilling are Swahili, Kenya's official language.

3. Geography. An image of Mount Kenya (an extinct volcano, 17,040 feet high) and the thorn tree are also depicted on each shilling note. Additional information can be gathered from the five, ten, and twenty shilling notes. Using the five shilling note, students can learn something about the land and geography of Kenya. Several giraffes and cape buffaloes (considered one of the world's fiercest animals) are pictured. Students may already know that some of the world's most well-known game reserves are found in Kenya.

In developing hypotheses about Kenya using the ten shilling note, students should be able to point out the importance Kenyans place on education and nutrition, particularly among the nation's young people. A young Kenyan boy and girl in school uniforms are shown drinking milk, with domesticated animals—cows—not "wild" animals in the background. Using this information, ask students to hypothesize why the values placed on nutrition and education are depicted on Kenyan money and not found on our own money. Teachers can use this information to introduce students to the concept, "developing nation." In addition to being a relatively "new" nation, Kenyans also face the difficult task of raising their standard of living. It should make sense to students that providing improved nutrition and education for young Kenyans are important ways of achieving a higher standard of living.

Finally, on the twenty shilling note, four Kenyan women are shown reading a newspaper. A rural home is shown in the background. What clues about Kenyan lifestyles can students discover by examining the clothing of the four Kenyan women? Two of the women wear a traditional dress and the others wear Western clothing. For what reasons do students think only women are shown on this currency? Students should hypothesize about Kenya's development goals, in this case improving the nation's literacy, including the literacy rate among women. Kenyan women—particularly as mothers—are responsible for the upbringing of the nation's children. As they learn to read, they can assist with the education of their children.

China: Chinese currency is known as renminbi and is divided into main units called the yuan, which are further divided into units called jiao. Explain to students that the Chinese were the first people in the world to use paper money, so one might expect to find images that are centuries-old on their money. Ask them if this assumption is true. (Given the examples they have, this assumption does not hold true.)

The images on the Chinese currency show people doing a particular type of work, dressed in appropriate work clothing. Again, assuming that a nation puts only those images that it considers to be very important on their money, students should be able to conclude that the type of work and the workers shown on the nation's currency are highly valued by the Chinese. Ask students to identify the type of work shown on each example. (Two yuan note—a male machinist; one yuan—a female operating a tractor; one jiao note—a group carrying farming implements)

Guide students to recognize that both the agricultural and industrial sectors of China's economy are depicted. Explain to students that China is about the size of the United States, yet has a population more than four times the size of the United States. Over one billion people live in China today, making it the world's most populous nation. Ninety percent of China's people live in the rural areas. The government of the People's Republic of China has placed much emphasis on modernizing the nation's economy. By showing working people on their currency (those who are not "famous" as George Washington or the president of Kenya), the Chinese government is depicting the importance of ordinary citizens in contributing to their nation's development.

Finally, see if students discover that several different languages are printed on the two yuan notes, reflecting the diversity of cultures and languages found in China today.

MONEY TALKS

5
BANKI KUU YA KENYA
CENTRAL BANK OF KENYA
LEGAL TENDER FOR FIVE SHILLINGS
D/84 518170
SHILINGI TANO
1ST JULY, 1984.
DANIEL TOROITICH ARAP MOI
PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF KENYA
FOR THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS
GOVERNOR
MEMBER
D/84 518170
5

5
5 SHILINGI TANO

10
LEGAL TENDER FOR TEN SHILLINGS
D/95 563601
KUMI
1ST JULY, 1984.
DANIEL TOROITICH ARAP MOI
PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF KENYA
GOVERNOR
MEMBER
10

KUMI
KUMI
KUMI

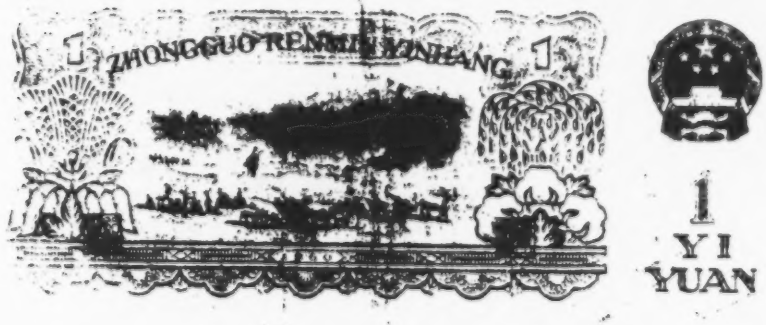
20
BANKI KUU YA KENYA
LEGAL TENDER FOR TWENTY SHILLINGS
E/5 043810
SHILINGI ISHIRINI
1ST JULY, 1984.
DANIEL TORDITICH ARAP MOI
PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF KENYA
GOVERNOR
MEMBER
E/5 043810

MONEY TALKS

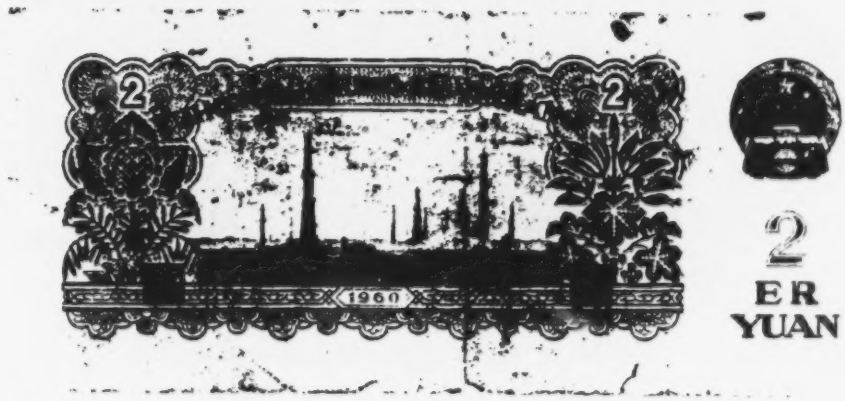
中國人民銀行
壹角
1
YI
JIAO

ZHONGGUO RENMIN YINHANG
1
1
1

中國人民銀行
壹圓
YI
YUAN
1


ZHONGGUO RENMIN YINHANG
1
YI
YUAN

中國人民銀行
貳圓
ER
YUAN
2
1960


2
2
1960
2
ER
YUAN

12. U.N. DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

Introduction:

In this activity, students examine the implications of particular rights by developing lists of rights they believe will create an atmosphere of respect and consideration in the classroom. They then compare their "declarations" with the United Nations Declaration of Children's Rights and discuss why a political system like the United Nations issues such statements.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Define a human right.
2. List human rights, particularly children's rights.
3. Explain why different groups confer different rights.
4. Participate in group decision-making processes.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Make copies of Handout 12-1 for the students.

Procedure:

1. Discuss with students the meaning of the term *rights*. (A right is a power or privilege to which someone is entitled.) Do children have rights? (Yes) Do people have the same rights in every setting? Do children? (No. Children might have different rights at home, at school, and while riding their bicycles on the street. They would have different rights if they lived in another country.) Why do rights differ from group to group? (Because the groups have different values and purposes for granting rights)

2. Explain that one of your purposes is to create an atmosphere of respect and consideration in your classroom. What rights—for student and teacher—would be necessary to create such an atmosphere? Have students brainstorm a list of rights, ensuring that they follow the rules of brainstorming:

- Say anything that comes to mind.
- Piggybacking on the ideas of others is good.
- Don't evaluate or criticize what others say.
- When you can't think of anything, wait a minute and try again.

3. Divide the class into groups of four or five students, explaining that each group is going to develop a "Declaration of Student/Teacher Rights" for your class. Have each group consider the list generated in step 2, discussing each idea and adding to or deleting from the list. When all group members feel comfortable with the ideas, have students write them in the form of a declaration and have each group member sign the list. To help students in the drafting of their declarations, you might want to write several sample rights statements on the chalkboard while the groups are working.

4. Reconvene the class and have each group present its declaration. Note differences among the groups, pointing out, when possible, the values that the differences reflect.

Adapted from *Tips for Social Studies Teachers*, edited by Laurel R. Singleton (Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1983).

5. Distribute copies of Handout 12-1, explaining that it is a declaration of children's rights developed by the United Nations to apply to all children around the world. Ask students what the declaration tells them about the nations of the world. Do all children have these rights in practice? Why is it important for an international organization to issue declarations like this? Should the United Nations have the power to make countries obey its declaration? Why or why not?

6. If you used Activity 10, remind students of the definition of a system. Ask how the United Nations is a system. (It is a group of related parts—nations—that work together for a common purpose—a better world.) Explain that the United Nations is a political system, because it involves governments.

Follow-up:

This activity could be followed with a variety of research assignments. For example, interested students might research the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and report to the class on how it differs from the Declaration of Children's Rights. Another topic for research would be other United Nations activities related to children. Students might find out what nations belong to the United Nations and try to determine why others do not belong. Older students might research other international political systems and prepare a large wall chart illustrating who belongs to each system and the common purpose for which they work.

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS

1. The child shall enjoy the rights stated in this Declaration.
2. The child shall enjoy special protection by law.
3. The child has a right to have a name and to be a member of a country.
4. The child has the right to grow and be healthy. The child has the right to good food, housing, and health services.
5. The child who is disabled shall be given special treatment and care.
6. The child needs love and understanding.
7. The child has the right to go to school. The child shall have exercise, fun, and play.
8. The child shall be among the first to receive protection and help.
9. The child shall not be hired for work until of proper age.

13. JOURNEYS THAT MADE THE WORLD SMALLER

Introduction:

Students tend to take for granted the ease and speed of modern communication and travel. It is difficult for them to grasp how much has changed in a very short time. The stories in this activity are designed to increase awareness of how fast and profound technological changes have been. By showing changes in transportation and communication, the activity develops the students' sense of involvement in these world systems and their ability to identify the interdependent network that links their state and community to other parts of the world.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Use stories, map skills, and mathematics to measure increased speed of transportation and communication over a 100-year period.

2. Identify relationships between changes in time and changes in ways of travel and communication.

3. Work in groups to discover how space satellites have changed modern communication.

4. Imagine themselves taking part in a journey that makes the world smaller.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 3 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make copies of Handouts 13-1 and 13-2 for all students. Gather several photographs showing forms of transportation in the late 1800s; if possible, pictures of your own community from that era would be very useful. You will also need resource books on modern space travel and communications satellites and a world map or globe showing physical features.

Procedure:

1. To introduce the activity, take the students back to the year 1889. Display pictures from that era and discuss how different your community looked then. Put on the chalkboard lists of those things in the pictures that we do not see today and another list of things that we're used to that did not exist in 1889. Concentrate on communication and transportation. For example, horses, wagons, and carriages have been replaced by cars and trucks. Railroads were the fastest way to travel (up to 60 mph), but few countries had railroad lines. There were steamships, but no airplanes.

2. Once the setting has been established, distribute copies of Handout 13-1 and give the students a few minutes to complete the reading or read the handout aloud. If you pause in the story to look at the map or globe, the students should see that mountains, deserts, and perhaps jungles could form barriers for Nellie. Use the following questions to debrief the reading:

- Nellie Bly's trip covered about 30,000 miles. To do this in 72 days, how many miles would she have to travel each day?
- From the study, can you tell how Nellie sent her reports to *The World*? What forms of transportation did she use?

Adapted from *Intercom 84/85*. Copyright 1977 by Global Perspectives in Education, Inc. Used by permission of the publisher.

- Less than 100 years ago, people in one part of the world knew little about other parts of the world. What evidence did you find of this in the story? Would a trip like Nellie's help people know about other places in the world? Explain.
- Once the trip had been made, do you think others tried to beat Nellie's record? What new inventions would have helped?

3. Pass out copies of Handout 13-2 and again have the students read the story or read it aloud. Make sure to emphasize that this second trip took place about halfway between 1889 and today. Use the following questions to debrief this reading:

- The *China Clipper* took about 60 hours to travel 8,000 miles across the Pacific. Add 40 hours more for landings along the way. Now suppose Nellie Bly had been able to make her journey in this airplane. About how long would her trip around the world have taken?
- The *China Clipper* was a special kind of airplane. What was special about it? Why would this be a good type of plane for flights across the Pacific Ocean?
- One of the ships they spotted, the *President Lincoln*, took about 16 days to cross the Pacific. How much faster was the *China Clipper*?
- How did airplane travel make it faster to send information over long distances?
- Some newspapers said the *China Clipper* helped to "shrink time and space." Others said "the world is getting smaller." What do you think these two phrases mean?

4. Read the following directions to the class: All the members of the class will make up the crew of a space satellite station. You will orbit the earth for three months. Your journey is an important step in shrinking time and space—even more than in the stories you have read.

You will be working in one of three groups. Each group will prepare a report about its space trip. Here are your assignments. (You will need to do some library work to complete them.)

Group 1: Your task is to make a list of things you need for your mission to work. You have to survive and you have to get along with each other. Explain to the other groups what your life-support systems are. You might also give them some ideas of things that could go wrong if every system doesn't work just right.

Group 2: Your job is to find out about speed of travel. How fast does a spaceship go when it is launched? How does this compare with the *China Clipper* in 1935 and Nellie Bly's travel in 1889-90? What kind of energy will you need when you are in orbit?

Group 3: Your assignment is to find out how your mission can make communication on earth easier and faster. How will your manned satellite help television and radio communication? How can you assist in weather reporting, and why is this important?

Follow-up:

Have students write stories on one of the topics below:

- Write about your adventures in the space colony. What does it feel like to get ready for blast-off? What's it like to travel through space? How does the earth look from your station? What adventures do you encounter?
- Pretend Nellie Bly is a time traveler. She has just traveled through time up to today. What would she see that would surprise her about how people travel and communicate? Write her story telling the readers of *The World* about her time journey.

THE RACE AGAINST TIME

In 1873, Jules Verne wrote a story called *Around the World in Eighty Days*. In it, the hero, Phileas Fogg, bet some friends that he could travel around the world in just 80 days. At that time, there were no airplanes or automobiles. Few countries had trains. Traveling around the world in 80 days would be an amazing feat. In the story, Fogg used many different ways of traveling to win his bet.

Around the World in Eighty Days was a story. Most people thought such a trip was impossible in real life. But a newspaper reporter named Nellie Bly thought it might be possible. She could describe her trip for the readers of her newspaper, *The World*.

This was Nellie's plan for the trip:

November 14, 1889—set sail for London, go from there to Paris and Italy.
November 27—Reach Suez Canal.
December 10—Reach Ceylon, set off for Singapore.
December 25—Be in Hong King for Christmas; leave for Yokohama, Japan.
January 22—Reach San Francisco.
January 27—Return to New York by train.

The trip would take a total of 75 days.

The publisher of *The World* did not really believe Nellie would succeed. But he knew the trip would make people interested in reading his paper. Nellie's plan was announced to *The World*'s readers.

Nellie's steamship left New York on November 14, 1889 at twenty minutes and six seconds before ten o'clock. A huge crowd saw Nellie off. Even Nellie wasn't sure she would succeed. She wrote in her journal, "I'm off, but will I ever come back?"

From London, Nellie sent a telegram to *The World*. She also sent a story back to the paper. It took two weeks for the story to get to New York. Many other newspapers also carried stories about Nellie's trip. Contests were started. People could win a prize if they guessed when Nellie would arrive back in New York.

At first, the journey was smooth. Nellie arrived in Ceylon on December 10, as she had planned. But she was stuck there for five days, waiting for the ship that was to take her on to Singapore. The ship, the *Oriental*, finally arrived. It made its way to Singapore and then headed for Hong Kong. On the way, a terrible storm hit. For a while, it looked like the *Oriental* might sink. But instead, when the storm was over, Nellie had made up two of the days she lost in Ceylon.

From Hong Kong, Nellie went to Japan. There, she boarded the *Oceanic*. On its trip across the Pacific, the *Oceanic* hit more storms. People following Nellie's trip were worried. When the ship finally docked in San Francisco, a crowd cheered for Nellie. She rushed to the railroad station, where a special train waited. She had seven days to make it back to New York.

Blizzards hit the train as it made its way across the 3,000 miles between California and New York. The train's top speed was 60 miles per hour. Along the way, more crowds gathered to cheer for Nellie.

The biggest crowds waited in New York. When Nellie Bly reached New York, she had beaten Phileas Fogg's time. Her trip took 72 days, 6 hours, 10 minutes, and 11 seconds.

If Nellie Bly hadn't proved it could be done, no one would have believed it!

THE EASY ADVENTURE

In 1935, Captain Edwin Musick and six crew members set out to fly across the Pacific Ocean. No one had ever made this flight, so the trip would go down in history.

One member of the crew described the take-off like this: "One by one the four huge engines roared into action. The lines were cast off and we began rocking along the waters of San Francisco Bay. The propellers churned up waves and the pontoons bounded as we picked up speed."

As the plane flew under the Golden Gate Bridge, the crew faced 8,000 miles of ocean. The airplane, the *China Clipper*, cruised at 6,000 feet. The approximate speed was 130 miles per hour. With a tail wind, the plane sometimes went as fast as 200 miles per hour. The flight plan called for stops in Hawaii, Midway Island, Wake Island, and Guam. Mail would be delivered at each of these stops. The final destination was the Philippines.

The crew used several methods of navigation. They made radio contact with ships on the ocean below. The radio operator would ask the ship for its position. This position would be checked against the plane's compass reading. Another method of navigation was dropping flares out the rear of the airplane. By watching the flares, the crew could tell if the plane was drifting with wind currents. When the sky was clear, the crew could navigate by the stars.

The hardest navigation job would be finding Wake Island. It is a very small island, with no other islands around it. This is how the navigator described finding Wake Island: "...when we were 350 miles from Wake, we spotted the ocean liner *President Lincoln*. The ship gave us a salute of three whistle blasts and Captain Musick tipped our wings in return. They also gave our radio operator our position, so I could alter course a little. Within a few minutes I heard the radio signal from Wake Island. It was very weak at first, but it let me guide us right on target."

More than 100,000 people greeted the *China Clipper* in the Philippines. The president of that nation gave a speech. The crew had flown 8,210 miles with no serious problems. It was a big step in world travel.

14. SHARING OUR GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT

Introduction:

In this activity, students further apply their understanding of the concept of a global system through analysis of countries that contribute to and feel the effects of changes in our global environmental system. Because the case studies deal with problematic changes, this activity can serve as a transition to the next section on global issues.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Apply the concepts of *system* and *global system* to case studies of our environmental system.

2. Identify the components and interactions of the global environmental system.

3. Analyze how changes in one part of our environmental system may affect people and nations who depend on the same system many, many miles away.

4. Assess human and national responsibility for changes in our environmental system.

Grade Level: 5-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Make a set of the Case Study Cards; also make copies of Handout 14-1. You will also need colored yarn, scissors, pushpins, star stickers, and a wall map of the world.

Procedure:

1. Review with students the definitions they established for the terms *system* and *global system*. Inform students that in this activity they will have the opportunity to apply what they know about systems by looking closely at one kind of global system – the environment.

2. Ask students to define the term *environment*. Students should mention the objects around them, the place they live, and so on. Have students list the components that make up their natural environment and record these on the board. Responses should include land or soil, air or sky, water, mountains, trees, and so on. Discuss why people need all these elements. How do all of these elements work together as a system?

3. Explain to students that the environmental system extends beyond their own community or even their own state or nation. As with any system, a change in one part of the environmental system may cause changes to occur quite a distance away. These changes will affect everyone and everything that depends on the system.

4. Provide examples of the interactivity of the environmental system using local and national weather patterns. For example, have students trace a winter storm front over several days to see how it moves from the west coast to the east coast. If a storm hits as heavy rains in California in January, what will probably occur in Colorado several days later? Students on the east coast or in the south might use their own experiences to discuss the progress of a hurricane from the southern Atlantic Ocean toward the southern United States and up the east coast.

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

5. Explain that just as weather moves, other changes that begin in one part of the global environmental system can move or cause changes across state and national borders. Some natural and human-made changes can upset the balance and smooth functioning of the environment. When this happens, all the people who depend on the environment can be affected. Students will look at examples of how people around the world are linked to each other through the environment and how events in one part of the world can set off changes in the environmental system that affect people far away.

6. Divide the class into five groups and give each one a Case Study Card. Each group should read and analyze its case study. Students are to determine:

- In what country or location the environmental change began.
- In what direction(s) it spread.
- What other countries/places were affected.
- How it affected people, animals, or plants as it spread.

Groups should record their information on Handout 14-1.

7. When groups have completed their analysis, provide each group with a length of colored yarn; pushpins, thumb tacks, or a stapler; scissors; and stick-on stars. Each group should go to the wall map of the world and chart the origination point and course of their environmental change. Some groups may have to create several strings going off in different directions. Groups should glue a star on every country or place that was affected by the environmental change.

8. Have each group describe to the class the environmental system case study that they researched, explaining the changes it caused and the places that were affected.

9. To close the activity, again direct class discussion to the concept of an environmental system. Why is the environment a global system? With our environmental system is it easy to confine changes to one part of the system? Who should take responsibility for keeping our environment clean and safe?

Follow-up:

Use the map created in this activity as a centerpiece for a bulletin board on the ecological system. Students could make illustrations for the display and write brief (one-paragraph) essays giving their views on the changes covered in the lesson.

Case 1: The Sandoz Chemical Fire

In 1986 a fire roared through the Sandoz Chemical factory in western Switzerland. The factory was located on the Rhine River, at the border between Switzerland and France. Firefighters tried to put out the fire with their water hoses. Accidentally, the water washed some poisonous chemicals from the factory into the Rhine River. The river carried the chemicals more than 800 miles, through France and Germany. As the chemicals were carried down the river, they killed eels and fish. Ducks and gulls ate the poisoned fish. They too, died. Some towns in France and Germany could not use the river for drinking water. Fishermen could not fish. Scientists believe that the clean-up of the Rhine River could take from two to 20 years.

Case 2: The Amoco Cadiz

The *Amoco Cadiz* was an oil tanker owned by the American oil company, Amoco. In 1978 the tanker was sailing through the Atlantic Ocean, close to the coast of France. The tanker was bringing a full cargo of oil to the United States. The ship sank off the coast of Brittany, France, spilling 68 million gallons of oil. The oil spread through the ocean and washed over the resort beaches of Brittany; 130 miles of coastline were polluted. The oil coated the bodies of fish and birds, killing them. Beaches were covered with oil and ruined. French communities, hotel owners, and fisheries filed a lawsuit against the Amoco Company. In 1988, a U.S. court in Chicago, Illinois ordered the Amoco Company to pay France $85 million to help repair the damage caused by the oil spill.

Case 3: The Chernobyl Power Plant

The Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant is located in the Soviet Union. In April 1986, the plant had an accident. Two explosions at the plant sent dangerous radiation into the air. Radiation is poisonous to people and animals. It can cause skin burns, cancer, and other diseases. Radiation can hurt people directly if they breathe it. It can also get into plants, vegetables, and other food and water. Then, people and animals who eat these things get sick. After the Chernobyl accident, radiation was carried through the air by wind and clouds. Some clouds carried the radiation northwest over Sweden, Norway, and Finland. Other clouds carried the radiation west over Germany and Poland. Clouds of radiation also spread south over Greece. In all these countries, radiation got into vegetables, water, milk, and meat. Many food products had to be thrown away so people would not get sick from the radiation. Another cloud spread over Asia and across the Pacific Ocean.

Case 4: Forest Fires

It was early November 1987. All through New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania, the smell of autumn was in the air. People throughout these states commented that the air smelled like fall leaves being burned. The sky, too, was grey and smokey-looking.

In fact, it was not fall leaves being burned. People in New York, New Jersey, and as far away as Massachusetts were seeing and smelling the results of forest fires hundreds of miles away. Between October 26 and November 5, 1987, over 1,000 forest fires had broken out in Texas, Kentucky, Georgia, Virginia, and West Virginia. Wind carried the smoke and ash particles all the way to the northeast. The smoke from these faraway forest fires caused problems for many people in the northeast. People with breathing problems like asthma had to stay indoors. Visibility—the distance someone can see—was reduced by 1 1/2 miles, causing trouble for airplanes landing and taking off in New York and Massachusetts.

Case 5: Acid Rain

In the 1960s, people in Canada began to notice changes in their environment. In cities like Toronto, people noticed that the faces of statues were being eaten away. Black splotches covered buildings and statues. Canadian scientists discovered that fish in the northern lakes were dying. Trees in the forests were not growing.

Scientists traced these problems to the rain in Canada. The rain had too much acid in it. Acids are strong chemicals that burn. Acids are found in some foods—like lemons and vinegar. You may have had unsweetened lemonade, or put too much vinegar on your salad. You may have felt like your stomach was burning. That was the acid. When it falls to earth, "acid rain" can burn buildings just as vinegar or lemon juice burns your stomach. Too much acid rain falling in lakes can kill fish.

The acid rain that falls in Canada is produced hundreds of miles away in the United States. The smoke from factories in Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, and Pennsylvania contains many chemicals. These chemicals mix with chemicals already in the air to form acids. Wind carries this air north to Canada. When the moisture in this air falls to earth as rain, it carries the harmful acids with it.

For many years, Canada has asked the U.S. government to help control acid rain. Canada says the U.S. government could force factories to reduce the harmful smoke that releases the acids. So far, the United States has not done this. So Canadian buildings, statues, lakes, and wildlife continue to suffer.

Canada is not the only country that has a problem with acid rain. In Europe, countries such as Sweden and Norway suffer from acid rain produced by factories in Germany and France.

CASE STUDY WORKSHEET

Read carefully the case study that your teacher assigns to your group. Then answer the questions below. For every nation or location that you name, be sure you can locate this place on your world map.

1. In what country or location did the environmental change begin?

2. What was the change—that is, what new element was added to the environmental system?

3. Was the change carried by water, air, soil, or some other part of the environmental system?

4. In what direction(s) did the change spread?

5. What countries and places were affected?

6. How were people, animals, or plants affected?

7. Who do you think was responsible for this change in the environmental system?

IV. STUDYING GLOBAL ISSUES AND PROBLEMS

Students who will live their adult lives in the 21st century must understand the global issues we face if they are to function as effective citizens. At the elementary level, students can begin to understand the nature of global problems as a foundation for deeper understanding of the problems and possible solutions in the future. The activities in this section aim to develop that initial understanding. The first activity helps students identify a variety of global issues. The remaining activities look at the issues of international trade, refugees, the future of Antarctica, and global pesticide use.

15. IDENTIFYING GLOBAL ISSUES

Introduction:

As adults, we often feel bombarded by global issues and problems, but we may be unaware of how young children perceive these problems. This activity is designed to let students share their views on global issues and to make them aware of issues they may know little about.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Identify global issues as problems requiring actions by several countries.

2. List several global issues.

3. Value cooperation as a means of solving problems.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: You will need a collection of newspapers, a world map, string, and red and blue pushpins. Students will need red and blue crayons.

Procedure:

1. Divide the class into groups of four or five students. Give each group several newspapers and ask them to find two examples of articles that involve interaction between at least two countries. Articles involving cooperation should be marked with a blue check; those involving conflict or a problem with a red check.

2. Give students red and/or blue pushpins and string so they can show the relationships they identified on a world map. (If your class did Activity 14, they can simply add to the map created as part of that activity.)

3. Ask students whether there are more examples of conflict or cooperation on their map. List students' examples in each category on the chalkboard. Allow time for students to list other problems or issues they have heard or read about.

4. Choose one of the conflicts listed on the chalkboard and lead a class brainstorm on possible solutions to the problem.

5. Remind students that global problems can only be solved when two or more countries take action. Conclude the lesson by helping students evaluate and revise their brainstormed solutions according to this criterion.

Follow-up:

Let each group from Step 1 choose one problem for which they will continue to search for articles. Each group could plan a visual presentation on its issue.

Activity developed by Paul Mulloy, Bruce Tipple, and Laurel R. Singleton.

16. THE WORLD ACCORDING TO ...

Introduction:

This activity begins with an exercise designed to stimulate student thinking about economic connections. They make posters showing all the ways in which they personally are connected to other parts of the world. They then analyze headlines to determine possible advantages and disadvantages of economic interdependence.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Illustrate some of the links they have with the rest of the world using their hobbies, clothing, foods, pets, and other activities as examples.

2. Use their own experiences to define global interdependence.

3. List some advantages and disadvantages of economic interdependence.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1-2 class periods (and homework)

Materials and Preparation: Make copies of Handout 16-1. Gather a collection of materials like those listed in Step 1 of the **Procedure** section. You will also need magazines, newspapers, poster paper, and markers.

Procedure:

1. To introduce this lesson, create a display using the list suggested below. If the actual items cannot be obtained, bring to class something else that represents an item on the list. Teachers may wish to vary the items, given student interests. Be certain that each item has an appeal to many students.

- A picture of an athlete such as Manute Bol (7'-6" Sudanese center in the NBA), Ivan Lendl and Martina Navratilova (tennis players from Czechoslovakia), Fernando Valenzuela (baseball player from Mexico), Rueben Mayes (football player from Canada).
- Nestle's candy bar. (Nestle is a Swiss company; cacao is grown in Africa.)
- A pair of Reebok tennis shoes. (Reebok is a British company with production plants in several Asian countries.)
- A Sony Walkman. (The latest models from this Japanese company are produced in Taiwan.)
- An item of clothing with a tag that indicates it was made in Asia.
- Pictures of or records by such recording artists U2 (Ireland), INXS (Australia), Phil Collins (Great Britain).
- A baseball glove, metal baseball bat, pair of ski boots, or other imported sporting goods. (Mizuno, a large Japanese sporting goods company, produces baseball equipment; many ski boots are made in Austria.)
- A picture of a German Shepard, Chihuahua, or St. Bernard.

Activity developed by Jacquelyn Johnson.

2. Conduct a brief open-ended class discussion. As students examine the display, ask them to relate personal experiences they have had with one or more of the items. Do these items represent ideas and experiences that they would label "all American"? Allow students to select several items and to elaborate about the importance of these items (and what the items represent) in their own lives. Is it possible to reach consensus that this display is, in fact, "all American"?

3. Without reinforcing students' ideas, explain that these items do have a common characteristic. Encourage students to make guesses about what they think the items in the display have in common. Although the items might be labeled "all American," it is possible to view the items in another way—one that could be characterized as "world connections." Ask students to speculate about the ways in which these items link them to other parts of the world.

4. Once they have recognized the global nature of the display, ask students to think of the ways in which they could convey this notion of "connectedness" to other parts of the world. Use the title, "The World According to (student name)" to describe all the connections to the world that students now believe they have. Student projects could be illustrated in a world map, collage, movie poster, mobile, etc. As a homework assignment, tell students to collect pictures or something else to represent their ideas.

5. Distribute Handout 16-1 and read the headlines at the top of the page with students. Which tell the advantages of economic interdependence? Which tell disadvantages? Do students think the advantages or disadvantages are more important? Why?

6. Have students complete the bottom of the handout with a partner. They should try to agree within their pairs on the response to each item. Trying to reach consensus should give them an opportunity to explore some of the issues raised in the large-group discussion in more detail.

Follow-up:

1. For older students, you might stage a panel discussion among a representative of a multinational corporation or a retailer who sells imported goods, a representative from a manufacturing concern whose business has been hurt by foreign competition, and an adult consumer. The discussion should focus on the benefits and costs of importing consumer goods from other nations.

2. Students could select a category of interest from this lesson on which to conduct more in-depth research. Their research should illustrate the global nature of the topic selected. Example topics might be:

- Sports
- Clothes
- Rock music
- Favorite foods
- Hobbies (stamps, coins, video games, etc.)
- Pets
- Cars

TO TRADE OR NOT TO TRADE

U.S. Garment Workers Start Campaign to Buy American

Prices of Microwaves Drop As More Imports Enter Country

Trade with U.S. Helps Korea Develop Its Economy

Computer Company Says: The Japanese Drove Us Out of Business

Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	
_____	_____	_____	1. The United States should pass laws to limit imports from other countries.
_____	_____	_____	2. Competition from other nations is good for American companies.
_____	_____	_____	3. We should buy American-made goods instead of foreign-made goods, no matter which costs less.
_____	_____	_____	4. The United States has more to gain from trading with other countries than it has to lose.
_____	_____	_____	5. If other countries limit the amount of American goods their people can buy, we should do the same with goods from their country.

17. REFUGEES

Introduction:

During the 20th century, there have been refugee groups from every continent. How to take care of these refugee groups and help them find homes in new countries has become a global concern, adopted by the United Nations, individual nations, and private organizations.

In this inquiry activity, students analyze case studies to arrive at a definition of *refugee* and to understand the problems refugees face.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Define the term *refugee*.

2. Identify several historical and contemporary refugee groups around the world.

3. Cite reasons why people would become refugees from their own country.

4. Empathize with the problems faced by refugee groups.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 1-2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make a set of the Case Study Cards, as well as copies of Handouts 17-1 and 17-2. Students will also need world maps, either in textbooks, atlases, or on classroom wall.

Procedure:

1. To introduce the activity, ask for a volunteer to define the term *immigrant*. Students should describe an immigrant as a person who leaves his/her native land to live in another country. Explain that, throughout its history, the United States has become home to hundreds of different immigrant groups from all over the world. In fact, all Americans, with the exception of Native Americans, can trace their family history in the United States back to immigrants. Explain to the class that today they will learn about a special category of immigrants, called refugees.

2. Divide the class into five groups and assign each group one case study. Each group should also have access to a world map, either from a textbook, atlas, or other source. Each case provides an example of a historical or contemporary refugee group. Through their analysis and discussion of these examples, students will recognize characteristics shared by all these groups. They will use their information to develop a definition of refugee.

3. As the groups read their case studies, instruct them to complete the analysis sheet on Handout 17-1.

4. When groups have completed their task, ask each one to report on the people they studied. What is the name of the group? Where were/are they from? Have a volunteer show nation of origin on the classroom world map. When did these people leave their home? Why did they leave? Where did they go? Record relevant information for each case study on the chalkboard – particularly each group's reason for leaving its home country.

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

5. Ask the class to consider the information compiled about all these groups. What similarities do students see in how the various groups were treated in their home countries? Why and how they left their home countries? In what they hoped to find in a new country? Students should be able to recognize that all the groups faced unsafe or unfair conditions in their own countries. All groups felt they had to escape their own countries for their safety.

Based on similarities they have discovered, have students formulate a definition of *refugee*. Why is a refugee different from other immigrants? Students should respond that a refugee is a person who *must* leave his or her home to escape an unsafe situation. Unlike other immigrants, who usually *want* to move to a new place, refugees usually do not want to leave their own countries but feel that they must. They leave their countries to find refuge, or safety, in a new country.

6. Explain to students that refugees are often categorized by the reasons why they left their own countries. There are religious refugees, who want to practice their religion without punishment; political refugees, who want to escape governments or laws which they believe are unfair; and economic refugees, who escape because they cannot work or cannot keep the money from their work in their home country. Some refugees leave home for a combination of reasons.

As a class, go through the case studies again, having students categorize each group as religious, political, or economic refugees.

7. Ask students if they would want to leave your community and move to a new state. Can they think of any conditions or situations that would make them feel that they just couldn't stay in your town anymore? Ask students to identify reasons why they would not want to move. They might mention such things as loss of friends, fear of a strange school or neighborhood, loneliness, getting lost, and so on.

Explain that just as it would be very difficult for many students in your class to move to a new place against their will, it is very sad and frightening for refugees to leave their home country and go to a strange new country. In addition to leaving behind their friends, relatives, and houses, refugees must often leave behind many of their belongings. In addition, they must go to a place that has a different language, customs, and often food, clothing, and weather.

8. Distribute Handout 17-2, explaining that this story and poem were written by young refugees to the United States. Read the material aloud in class. How did these young people feel about their home countries? Did they love their countries? Do they miss home? What do they miss? How do they feel?

Follow-up:

Invite a guest from a refugee group or organization in your community to speak to the class about the history and customs of this group, their trip to the United States, and their adjustments to life in this country.

Case 1: Pilgrims

The word *pilgrim* describes a person who takes a long trip, especially a trip for religious reasons. In American history, the Pilgrims were a religious group that came to America from England in 1609. The Pilgrims felt that they had to leave England because the government would not let them practice their religion. They began a new colony in Massachusetts, where they could practice their religion in peace.

Case 2: Southeast Asians

In the 1960s and 1970s, there were civil wars in several countries of Southeast Asia. Some of the people wanted communist governments and some did not. The communists won the civil wars in Laos, Vietnam, and Kampuchea. Thousands of people who had fought against communism in these countries were afraid that they would be imprisoned or killed as enemies of the new government. They felt they had to escape from their own countries if they were to survive. Some people escaped through the jungles and mountains into neighboring Thailand. Others loaded everything they could into small boats and tried to sail to Malaysia, Indonesia, or Thailand. Many of these people eventually settled in the United States, Canada, Australia, and European countries.

Case 3: Soviet Jews

In the Soviet Union, all religions are officially outlawed. People who try to practice their religion may be punished and imprisoned. The Soviet government is especially harsh towards Russians of the Jewish religion. Because of this, many Soviet Jews ask permission to leave the Soviet Union and move to a country where they can practice their religion freely. Sometimes they have to wait many years before the government will let them leave. They come to countries such as the United States and Israel.

Case 4: Iranians

In 1979, the government of Iran changed. The man who had been the dictator of Iran for many years, the Shah, was forced out of the country. A new leader, the Ayatollah Khomeini, took over. The Ayatollah and his followers changed Iran into a very strict, religious country based on the Moslem religion. Many people fled from the new government of Iran. Some people had been followers of the old leader, the Shah, and were afraid they would be killed by the new government. Some people did not want to live under a strict religious government. Many of these people moved to the United States and European countries.

Case 5: Vietnam War Protesters

At times in our history, people have sought escape from U.S. policies they did not like. In the 1960s and 1970s, the United States was fighting a war against communism in Vietnam, a small country in Southeast Asia. Young men were drafted into the U.S. Army. They were sent to Vietnam to fight the war. Some young men believed that the United States should not fight this war; they believed very strongly that the war was a bad thing. They broke the law and refused to join the army. If they stayed in the United States, they were put in jail. So some young men escaped to Canada or European countries rather than go to jail or fight in a war they believed was wrong.

CASE STUDY WORKSHEET

Answer these questions about the group of people you have read about. Be prepared to share what you have learned with the class.

1. What group did you read about? _____

2. Where are they from? _____ Be sure you can find this country on a world map.

3. When did these people leave their country? _____

4. Why did they leave their country? _____

5. Where did they go? _____

ESCAPE FROM VIETNAM

by Chu'o'ng Lê and Hùng Phan

My name is Le Khanh and I lived under a Communist regime for five years in Vietnam. The first year the Communists granted us the freedom to move around the country. They lifted the taxes from us. But, the second year they forbade everything. Then, people began leaving the country. Some bribed guards to get out. Many people were leaving in small fishing boats. The weighted-down boats were so heavy that they began sinking as they left the coast and people drowned. Other refugees' boats were sunk as they approached islands and hit hidden rocks. Many people were caught by the Communists' ships. Still other boats were robbed by Thai sea pirates, and the people on those boats lost all their personal belongings and all their food.

Some people tricked or bribed the army to get out. A few families escaped this way from Vietnam. Some tried and did not know where they were going. Sometimes they stayed at sea for ten or fifteen days without food or water. So, when those people saw an island they would go to live on it without food or water. Only one half of the people on each boat made it and the rest died. Many people went crazy because of the crowded conditions and the sight of death all around them. Some people lost their way and ended up back in Vietnam, thinking it was Thailand or Malaysia. Then the Communists would capture them and put them in jail with little or no food or water. Still, everyone kept trying to get away from the North Vietnamese.

Some of the people who tried to get into Thailand were attacked by bandits. These bandits stole their money. If the refugees tried to stop them, they were killed. It was very dangerous to try to cross the borders, but they had to try. Later, ships came from the United States, Germany, Denmark, and other countries to try and rescue some of the refugees.

For those who reached the refugee camp, conditions were very crowded. The refugees received very little to eat, only two pounds of rice and fish for adults, and one pound of rice and one fish for those under eighteen. I lived in Songkla Camp for three and one-half months. There were many people who did not even have a change of clothing—conditions were very bad. I was finally able to leave in July of 1980, and I came to the United States. I will never forget the awful condition of that camp—the curfews, the sadness when you didn't get a sponsor right away, the hunger, and the misery. I was lucky to get a sponsor along with my brother and sister. We all came to the United States together. I'm very happy to be away from the situation in Vietnam and to be safe in the United States.

Excerpted from *Worldwinds* (Boulder, CO: Center for Studies in English As a Second Language, 1982). Used by permission of the publisher.

TOU

Every time I moved
from place to place
no school for years

Every day I stayed home
no food to eat
no clothes to wear
no fun at all

Since then I've never found
my old friends again
Every minute counted slowly
and...

I didn't know what to do
because of the war

GAO

I feel safe here
There are a lot of changes for me
that make me feel wonderful inside
I feel like a better person here
I feel like I am an American
I love Laos because it is

the land where I was born
I like the United States because
here I can own things more easily

18. A GLOBAL DECISION: THE FUTURE OF ANTARCTICA

Introduction:

As an undeveloped and little-explored continent, Antarctica is one of the world's last frontiers. Since 1959, a treaty honored by most nations of the world has protected Antarctica from commercial and national development, while keeping the continent open to scientific research. However, as the earth's population continues to grow, Antarctica is increasingly seen as a land of opportunity and development, as well as a possible solution to a variety of national and international problems.

In this activity, students take the roles of nations with different interests in the future of Antarctica. They present their views and interests in a simulated global treaty meeting and work together to reach a compromise solution on the future of the continent.

Objectives: Students will be able to.

1. Recount the recent history of Antarctica.
2. Describe the importance of Antarctica in economic, political, military, social, and scientific terms.
3. Recognize and evaluate different interests in Antarctica.
4. Analyze the role national interests play in international conflicts and disagreements.
5. Develop skills of consensus and problem solving.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make a set of Role Cards and copy Handouts 18-1 and 18-2. You will also need poster paper, crayons or markers, and possibly encyclopedias or reference books. You may want to arrange for one period of media center time.

Procedure:

1. To begin the activity, ask students to volunteer information about Antarctica. Encourage student contributions with questions regarding Antarctica's location, geography, appearance, animals, inhabitants, importance. Through student responses and class discussion, establish that:

- Antarctica is one of the earth's seven continents.
- It is the land mass that surrounds the South Pole.
- Most of the land of Antarctica is buried year-round under a sheet of ice that is hundreds of feet thick in some places.
- There is no native population and no country or government on the continent of Antarctica.
- Antarctica may have valuable natural resources.
- The Antarctic environment is very special, with many rare animals and birds.

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

2. Explain that, as an unsettled and unknown land, Antarctica is very exciting to many countries of the world. As the world becomes more populated and experiences more problems, some countries look to Antarctica for an answer to their problems. There are many different claims and interests in Antarctica. For example:

- Seven nations claim to own pieces of Antarctica; they base their claims on explorations conducted earlier in this century; other nations claim that no one can own any part of Antarctica.
- Some nations want to use Antarctica to fill global or national needs such as the need for food, water, or natural resources; other nations would like to send their garbage or people they don't have room for to Antarctica.
- Some nations think that Antarctica should be open to scientific exploration and research; others feel that Antarctica should be preserved and protected as it is.

3. Distribute Handout 18-1, "The Antarctic Treaty of 1959." Review with students the terms of the treaty. Are any particular nations or interests favored in this treaty? Who or what? (No particular nations are favored, but scientists are.) How does this treaty show cooperation among nations? (All nations will share Antarctica, no new nations can claim ownership of Antarctic land, scientists will share their findings.) Explain that only 18 nations have signed the treaty. Most other nations honor the treaty, but no one has to. Further explain that the treaty will last until 1991. At that time, a treaty nation may ask to have the treaty revoked or reconsidered.

4. Explain that over the next two days, students will simulate an Antarctic Treaty revision meeting in 1991. To prepare for the treaty meeting, students will work in small groups, each taking the role of a nation with special interests and plans for Antarctica. Each group will read and discuss their national role. Using a worksheet to guide their analysis, each group will: identify their nation's concerns and interests; write a speech supporting their position, which they will present at the treaty meeting; and prepare a poster to convince other groups to support their position.

5. Divide the class into six small groups and distribute a Role Card and a worksheet/speech outline (Handout 18-2) to each group. Ask each group to select a leader to assign tasks and coordinate tasks.

6. Allow the remainder of class and homework time for groups to analyze and discuss their roles, prepare their speeches, and create posters. You may want to have encyclopedias and other resources available in the room for students to conduct research on Antarctica, polar animals and resources, and so on. Have poster paper and crayons or markers available to all groups at the front of the room. Circulate from group to group to check for understanding and progress.

7. On day 2, students will participate in the treaty meeting. Ask each group to select a spokesperson. Arrange chairs and desks for six students, one from each group, at the front of the room. Each group may display its poster somewhere in the front of the room.

8. Open the treaty meeting with a statement of the purpose of the meeting (to establish a new treaty that explains the future uses of Antarctica) and a review of the terms of the 1959 treaty. Allow the spokesperson from each group five minutes to read his or her speech and explain the group poster. Students at their seats should make notes of the six proposals for Antarctica. Also write a brief description of each proposal on the chalkboard for class reference.

9. Lead the class in a discussion of the pros and cons of each proposal. Who will be helped by each proposal? Would any nations be hurt by the proposal? How? Would the land of Antarctica be helped or hurt by the proposal? What would Antarctica be like 50 years from now if each proposal were adopted?

10. Conduct a vote on the six proposals for Antarctica. If no single proposal receives a majority of votes, eliminate those proposals with the least votes and vote again until the class has narrowed their decision to two or three proposals. How can the class reach a compromise – a halfway point – between

the leading proposals? What could each side give up to reach an agreement? Help the students negotiate a compromise plan for Antarctica that is agreeable to all students in the room.

11. Debrief the activity by asking the class to analyze how it made its decision. Which did students feel was more important, the needs of their own nation or the future of Antarctica? Does the continent of Antarctica have a person or group to speak for it or look out for its future? What would happen to Antarctica in 100 years if every nation tried to take a piece of the continent? How does the future of Antarctica affect the world as a whole?

Follow-up:

To extend the activity, have students return to their national groups to create another poster showing the final plan for Antarctica. Student posters should represent clearly, either in pictures or writing, how the final treaty plan will affect the world as a whole and how it will affect their own national interest (i.e., scientific research and exploration, environmental preservation, food or natural resources, military security and defense, and so on.)

THE ANTARCTIC TREATY OF 1959

In 1959, 12 nations from around the world agreed on a treaty for the future of Antarctica. These 12 nations were Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Chile, France, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, South Africa, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Six other nations later signed the treaty. They are East Germany, Poland, Brazil, India, China, and Uruguay.

The treaty says:

1. Antarctica shall be used only for peaceful purposes.
2. Antarctica is open to scientific investigation.
3. Countries that sign this treaty will share plans, scientific findings, and scientists whenever possible.
4. No new claims to ownership of Antarctica can be made.
5. Nuclear explosions and tests are not allowed in Antarctica.
6. Dumping of nuclear waste is not allowed in Antarctica.
7. The treaty applies to all land areas south of 60 degrees south latitude.
8. In 1991, this treaty can be renegotiated if any one of the treaty signers requests it.

Role 1

You represent a South American nation that claims to own land in Antarctica. Your country is not very wealthy and you believe that Antarctica could help make money for your country. You want to build hotels and restaurants in Antarctica. Then, you could bring tour groups from all over the world to explore this wild land and learn about the unusual animals.

Role 2

You are an Asian country with very few natural resources. In fact, you must import almost all of the oil, coal, and natural gas you use to provide energy for industry, transportation, and heating. You believe that important resources that could help your country are located below the ice of Antarctica. It is not fair to let these valuable resources go untouched and wasted when your country—and many others—need these resources.

Role 3

You represent a nation in central Africa. Your country is poor and has many problems. For years, your country has had bad weather, with little or no rain. As a result, there is very little water or food in your country. Many people starve because of lack of food. The waters of Antarctica could solve your country's food problems. Antarctica's waters are full of fish, squid, and little shrimp called krill. You believe that poor countries of the world should have rights to the food resources of Antarctica.

Role 4

You represent a nation in the Sahara Desert. Because of its geographic location close to the equator, your country is hot and dry. The country has very little water and it is very expensive. On the other hand, your country has plenty of oil. Sale of oil makes your country rich. You would like the right to take ice from Antarctica. Your boats could pull gigantic chunks of ice through the Atlantic to your country, where it would be melted to provide drinking water and water for farming. Of course it would be expensive to ship ice so far, but you are a wealthy nation.

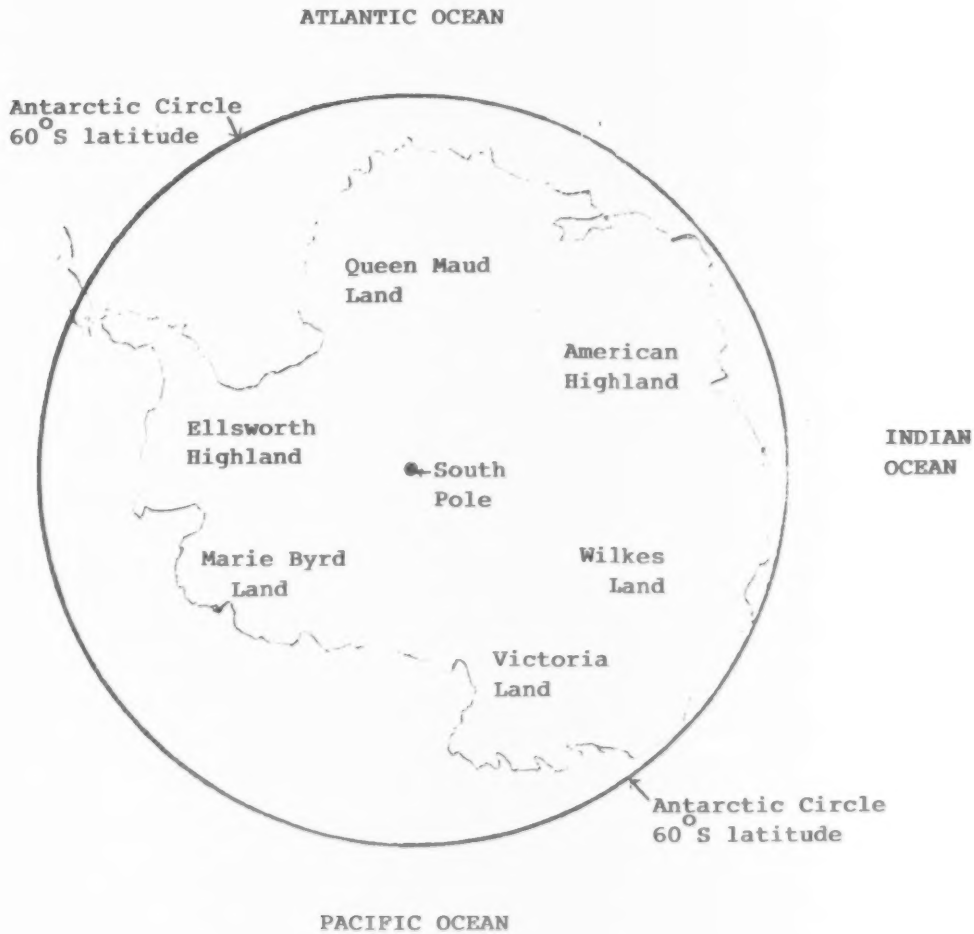
Role 5

You represent one of the countries that signed the original Antarctic Treaty of 1959. Over 50 scientists from your country are stationed in Antarctica. They conduct research and experiments on animals, plants, and rocks found in Antarctica. You would like Antarctica saved just for scientific research. But some things have to change. Because so many different countries have scientists in Antarctica, some areas are getting very crowded. Snowmobiles are ruining the area. Garbage and sewage are becoming a problem because there is no place to dispose of them. Supply boats anchored off shore drop refuse in the ocean. You believe that stricter laws must be passed to control how the land is treated by the scientists. A limit should be set on how many scientists can come to Antarctica. Maybe countries will have to take turns sending scientists.

Role 6

You represent a very industrialized, technologically-advanced country. Your country has a serious problem: toxic (poisonous) waste. For many years your country's industries have been producing harmful waste materials—chemicals and metals that can poison the water and land and even kill people. There is no place to put these toxic wastes in your own country because all the land is already used for homes, factories, stores, and highways. You know that other countries around the world have the same problem with toxic waste that your country does. You believe Antarctica offers a solution to this problem. Antarctica is a frozen land that is not used for anything. It would be a perfect place to drop the poisonous wastes of other countries.

ANTARCTIC TREATY MEETING, 1991



1. What does your nation want to happen in Antarctica?
2. How would this action help your country?
3. How would it help other countries?
4. Would this action help the land of Antarctica? If so, how?
5. Would this action hurt Antarctica? If so, how?

Speech of Nation _____Before the Antarctic Treaty Meeting, 1991

Our nation proposes that the continent of Antarctica should be used for:

_____

_____

_____

This plan will help our nation by:

_____

_____

_____

Other benefits of this plan are:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

19. PESTICIDES: A GLOBAL PROBLEM

Introduction:

Technology has increased the level of interdependence in the world. Some technological advances have had a detrimental effect on the global environment. The use of pesticides is a good example. Many pesticides banned for use in the United States because they have been proven toxic and carcinogenic are still being manufactured and sold to other countries, particularly Third World countries. These countries use the dangerous pesticides on food crops that are then exported to other countries, including the United States. The United States depends on these countries for a large portion of its fruits and vegetables. The countries growing the crops depend on the United States and other developed nations to provide the pesticides needed to produce these food crops. Meanwhile, the pesticides and foods grown with them pose environmental and health problems both here and abroad.

This lesson introduces students to the pesticide problem. Through their examination of this issue, students learn how the nations of the world are interdependent.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Identify use of pesticides as a global environmental issue.

2. Explain how this issue illustrates global interdependence.

3. Analyze arguments for and against using dangerous pesticides.

4. Recognize the value of diverse viewpoints on an issue.

Grade Level: 5-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Make copies of Handouts 19-1 and 19-2 for all students.

Procedures:

1. Have students brainstorm a list of major environmental problems that are a result of technological developments. (The students may identify such problems as air and water pollution, energy shortages, population growth, depletion of natural resources, nuclear waste disposal, nuclear weapons, etc.) List the problems on the chalkboard.

2. Ask students how many of the problems are global – affect all nations. How does the fact that nations share problems illustrate interdependence?

3. Distribute copies of Handout 19-1 and read this information aloud with students. Ask the students:

- What environmental problems does this article talk about?
- What technological problems does it mention?
- How serious do you consider this problem?
- Who is most seriously affected by this problem?
- What is the major effect of this problem on the people of the world?

Activity developed by Janice V. Pearson and Bruce Tipple.

4. Give each student a copy of Handout 19-2. Students should complete these worksheets before discussion is continued. The worksheet allows students to look at both sides of the pesticide issue.

5. Summarize the activity with the following questions:

- In what way does this issue illustrate global interdependence?
- Can you think of other ways in which nations are interdependent?
- Who is responsible for solving global environmental problems such as the problem with pesticides?
- How can you help solve global environmental problems?

Follow-up:

Students may conduct research in their local community to answer two questions: (1) what pesticides are used or sold in our community? and (2) what foods available in our community are imported from Third World or developing countries? Students may simply answer these questions or may delve further into each, looking at what ingredients are used in the pesticides sold locally, what the health and environmental effects of these pesticides are, which foods available locally were grown in countries that use banned pesticides, how grocery importers work with the Food and Drug Administration, and so on.

THE PESTICIDE PROBLEM

Pesticides are chemicals that control or kill pests that destroy crops or spread diseases. Pests can be insects, weeds, or diseases. Pesticides are a technology—a scientific method people have developed for achieving a practical purpose. The three kinds of pesticides are:

1. Insecticides, which kill insects.

2. Herbicides, which are used to kill weeds.

3. Fungicides, which kill organisms that cause plant diseases.

Some pesticides cause serious health problems, such as birth defects, cancer, liver damage, and death. They can also build up in the environment and kill birds, fish, and animals. They may poison the water used by people who live nearby.

Because of these problems, the U.S. government has said that some pesticides cannot be used in our country. These pesticides can still be made in the United States. They can then be sold to other nations. The largest market for these pesticides is in developing nations. The pesticides help farmers in these countries grow more fruits and vegetables for sale to other countries. This helps the economies of the developing nations.

This causes health problems for at least four groups:

1. The workers who make the pesticides and transport them to the countries where they are used.

2. The workers who use the pesticides in the developing countries.

3. People living near where the pesticides are used.

4. People who eat the food grown using pesticides.

Many of the foods grown using pesticides are sold to the United States. Although our country has laws saying how much pesticide can be in a food before it is unsafe, the government can test only a few of the many shipments of food coming into our country. Some pesticides cannot be discovered by the test we now have.

As a result, many scientists believe that Americans are eating foods containing too much pesticide.

PESTICIDE WORKSHEET

1. List problems caused by pesticide use.

2. List benefits of using pesticides.

3. Can the pesticide problem be solved by the actions of one country? Why or why not?

V. STUDYING GLOBAL HISTORY

Understanding global systems and global issues demands some knowledge of the historical conditions and events that led to the current world situation. In addition, it is useful for students to see that the world connections so much a part of our lives today began centuries ago. The activities in this section strive to develop that realization by looking at topics that are both interesting to students and representative of the contact between civilizations that has occurred for the past 2,000 years. These topics are inventions (Activity 20), migrations (Activity 21), architecture (Activity 22), calendars (Activity 23), and food (Activity 24).

20. A WORLD OF INVENTIONS

Introduction:

Societies from every part of the world have produced inventions that affect our lives today. In this activity, students examine some of those inventions, place them on a timeline, and analyze their impact on life today.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Describe contributions of various cultures to modern life.

2. Place inventions in chronological order.

3. Appreciate the creativity of all cultures.

Grade Level: 3-6

Time Required: 2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Reproduce and cut up the list of inventions. Prepare the room by stretching a length of poster paper along one entire chalkboard or wall. Make a timeline on the paper that covers the years from 3000 B.C. to the present. Center the line vertically so that students will have room to draw above and below the line. (Note: If you do not think it will confuse students, you can compress early sections of the line, as there will be more items entered in later years.) You will need world history texts and encyclopedias for student research. Students will need drawing materials.

Procedure:

1. Distribute one item from the list of inventions to each student. Extra items are included so early finishers can take a second topic. Inform students that they are to find information about their inventions in a history book or encyclopedia. They may not be able to find the exact date as listed, but each should find some general information about the history of the assigned invention. On a sheet of notebook paper, each student should design a rough illustration that shows what the invention is and how it is important to us.

2. After the rough illustrations are finished, have students transfer their drawings to the correct locations on the timeline.

3. When all students have completed their drawings, allow time for students to examine the timeline. Have them note the number of countries represented on the timeline and the range of inventions. Have students return to their seats and discuss the project. What can they say about the number of cultures represented? What areas are not represented? What might be some reasons? (All cultures are inventive, but not all of those inventions have affected the entire world.) Which inventions are most important to us today? Which have changed the most? The least? What inventions would you add that do not appear on the list?

Follow-up:

Have students propose inventions that would help the whole world today. This may include drawings as well as descriptive writing.

Activity developed by Robert D. LaRue, Jr.

INVENTIONS LIST
(Duplicate and cut into strips)

Bread	3000 BC	Sumeria
Brick	3000 BC	Sumeria
Calendar	3000 BC	Egypt
Chariot	800 BC	Italy
Clock	1500 BC	Egypt
Coin	3000 BC	Sumeria
Computer	1834	England
Color Television	1928	United States
Writing	3500 BC	Sumeria
Telegraph	1794	France
Weaving Loom	3000 BC	Europe
Steam Engine	1775	England
Penicillin Shots	1928	United States
Antibiotics	1956	United States
Scientific Chemistry	720	Arabia
Newspaper	748	China
Horse-Drawn Train	1795	England
Paper	712	China
Paper Money	845	China
Book Printing	600	China

Arabic Numerals	814	India
Atomic Bomb	1945	United States
Gunpowder	1000	China
Alphabet	2000 BC	Egypt
Smallpox Vaccination	1796	France
Barometer	1643	Italy
Bicycle	1839	Scotland
Telescope	1600	Holland
Radio	1900	United States
Television	1925	Scotland
Telephone	1876	United States
Photography	1827	France
Canned Food	1810	France
Submarine	1801	United States
Rockets as Weapons	1805	England
Musket	1525	England
Cast Iron Bridge	1773	England
Steel	900 BC	India
Color Movies	1928	United States

21. MIGRATIONS: PEOPLE ON THE MOVE

Introduction:

Throughout history, individuals and groups of people have moved from one location to another. These moves, motivated by political, economic, climatic, and social events, have been the basis for many of the cultural connections among nations in today's world. This activity asks students to examine the origins of their own families and the reasons for their current locations.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Trace the nationa[illegible]s of their families.

2. Classify reasons for moving into various categories.

3. Show movements on a world map.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 3-5 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make copies of Handouts 21-1 and 21-2. Prepare a transparency of the world political map provided with the activity and project the map onto a wall as large as possible. Tape posting paper to the wall and trace the map onto it. You will also need markers or crayons. If you plan to extend the activity to the entire school, as suggested in the Follow-up section, you will also need yarn and a copy of Handout 21-3 for everyone in the school.

Procedure:

1. Introduce the topic of migration of people. Brainstorm with the class reasons people would want to move. List these reasons on the chalkboard as they are suggested. Create these categories: political, economic, social, religious, climatic, other. Briefly explain each category. Go through the list of ideas generated by students and have students decide which category each reason best fits. Enter each reason under its correct category.

2. Have students think about how their families came to live where they do. Distribute Handout 21-1 and read through the questions with the students. Assign this as homework; allow 2-3 days for its completion.

3. Write the categories of reasons for migrating on the chalkboard again. Have students discuss the responses they obtained on the questionnaires, focusing on the reasons for migrating. Into which categories do the reasons fall? Which kinds of reasons were most common? Least common? Why? What historical events influenced movement into the area where you live?

4. Transfer the information on the questionnaires to the world map. Write each person's name in the original location and use a yardstick to draw a line to the location of the school. Use the atlases to locate the nations, states, and towns that appear in the questionnaires.

5. Distribute Handout 21-1 and have students complete the exercise. Correct answers are: **1**. C or E; **2**. E; **3**. E; **4**. P or R; **5**. E; **6**. P; **7**. P; **8**. P; **9**. R.

Activity developed by Robert D. LaRue, Jr.

Follow-up:

The activity could easily be expanded to include the entire school. Ask other teachers to have their classes complete the forms. Then collect the forms and have students sort them by nation or state of origin. On colored paper, create a list of the people born in each state or nation. Tape the lists on the map near the correct locations and run a piece of yarn from the list to the location of the school. This makes an excellent display for schoolwide multicultural or international celebrations.

MIGRATION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Your name:

2. Where were you born? Nation _____ State _____ Town_____

3. Name of relative you interviewed:

4. Relationship to you:

Ask these questions to the person you interview:

1. Where were you born?

2. Where did you live before you moved here?

3. When did you move here?

4. Why did you move here?

5. If you have always lived here, who was the first member of your family to live here and why did they move here?

You do not have to write down the answer to this question, but ask the person you are interviewing to tell you a favorite story about moving.

REASONS FOR MIGRATING

You have learned that the United States is a country of immigrants. People have migrated to the United States for all the reasons you have talked about in this activity. Below are listed some groups who have migrated to the United States. In front of each, write a P if the group migrated for political reasons, an E for economic reasons, an S for social reasons, an R for religious reasons, a C for climatic reasons, and an O for other reasons.

1. _____ Potato crop ruined in Ireland. Many Irish people starve. Irish families migrate to the east coast of the United States (1840s and 1850s).

2. _____ The transcontinental railroad is begun in California. Many Chinese men come to the west coast of the United States (1950s and 1860s).

3. _____ The industrial revolution in eastern United States offers thousands of factory jobs. Italians and Eastern Europeans come to the east coast (1880s-1910).

4. _____ The Russian government passes laws against Jews. Russian immigration to the United States increases (1890-1900).

5. _____ World War II ends. Many people are homeless in Europe. Europeans from all countries arrive in the United States (1945-1950).

6. _____ There is a revolution in Cuba. Thousands of Cubans arrive in Florida (1960).

7. _____ New governments take control in Southeast Asia. Hundreds of thousands of Southeast Asian immigrants come to the United States (1970s-1980s).

8. _____ Civil war in Nicaragua and El Salvador causes people from these countries to enter the United States (1980s).

9. _____ Pilgrims came to the United States to practice their religion (1600s).

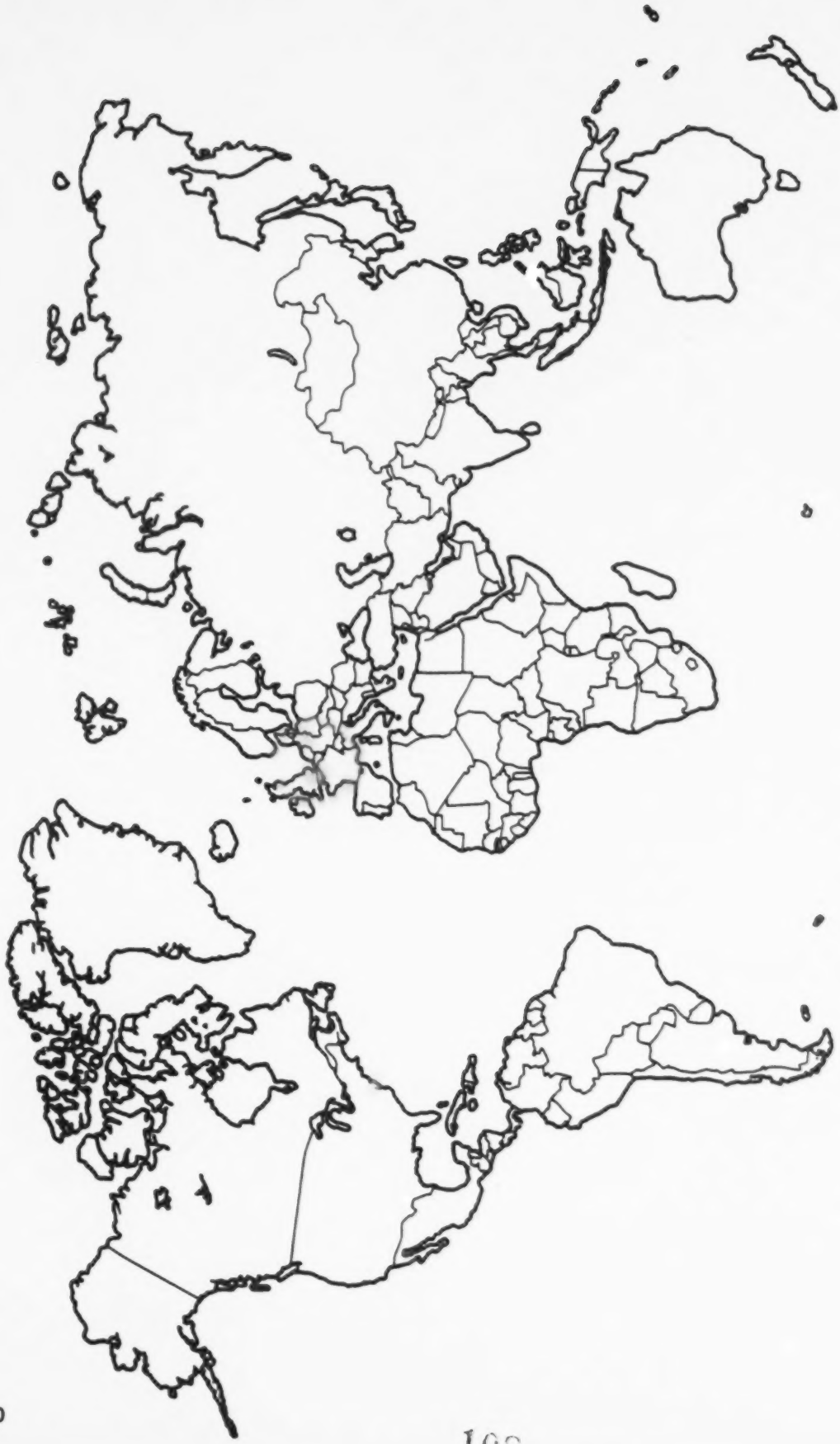
These immigrants have created cultural connections between the United States and countries around the world.

MY SCHOOL AND THE WORLD

1. My name is:

2. I was born in: Nation _____ State _____ Town ____

3. My family moved here because...



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22. ARCHITECTURE AND GLOBAL HISTORY

Introduction:

The connections between architecture, history, and geography are inescapable. In this activity, students identify those connections by searching popular publications. They then draw conclusions about the interactions of the three elements.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Identify various architectural styles from throughout the world.

2. Draw connections between architectural styles and environment.

3. Appreciate the varieties of architectural responses to the environment.

Grade Level: 4-6

Time Required: 2-3 class periods

Materials and Preparation: You will need several world maps, poster paper or tagboard, scissors, glue, tape, and old magazines (*National Geographics, Architectural Digests, Country Home, Apartment Life, Sunset, Good Housekeeping*, etc). Make copies of Handout 22-1 for all students.

Procedure:

1. Distribute Handout 22-1 and discuss the first paragraph. Then go over the directions for the research activity with students. Tell them they will have the rest of this period and one additional class period to do the assignment.

2. Hang up all posters and allow time for students to examine each others' work.

3. Bring the class to order and discuss the questions from the assignment sheet. Probe regarding the effects weather and climate have on the selection of materials for buildings and the styles of building. What function do artistic elements serve? What styles of buildings are found in our community? How do they reflect climate? History? Why are government buildings usually easy to identify in our culture? Churches? What other types of buildings can be identified just by their shapes? What buildings in our town are influenced by other cultures? (Foreign restaurants and churches are the most likely here.)

Follow-up:

Arrange to take students on a walking tour through part of your community where they can see a range of architectural styles, with examples showing the influence of environment and history. Discuss what areas many of the settlers in your area came from and how this can be seen in the architecture of your community.

Activity based on a unit developed by Shaun P. Bresnahan, Belehertown (MA) High School; adapted by Robert D. LaRue, Jr.

ARCHITECTURE RESEARCH PROJECT

A building is any human-made structure designed to provide shelter. Some buildings are also beautiful works of art. Buildings are made of materials selected for specific reasons. The style of each building—how it looks—is the result of many choices made by the builder. Some choices are artistic. Some are influenced by the environment. Some are influenced by history.

Follow the directions below to collect photographs or drawings of buildings from around the world and throughout time. Your teacher has a supply of magazines you can use to find pictures.

Collect pictures of three of the following:

An ancient building in North America
An ancient building in South America
An ancient building in Asia
An ancient building in Africa
An ancient building in Europe
An ancient building in Australia

Collect pictures of three of the following:

A modern building in North America
A modern building in South America
A modern building in Asia
A modern building in Africa
A modern building in Australia
A modern building in Antarctica

Collect pictures of three of the following:

A building made of water
A building made of tree products
A building made of rocks
A building made of metal
A building made of many kinds of products
A building made of an unusual material

Collect three pictures of the following:

People preparing materials for building

Be prepared to answer these questions about each of your pictures:

1. How did the climate affect the design of this building?
2. Where did the materials to make this building come from?
3. What do you like about how the building looks?
4. Could this building be built anywhere else and still be as good?
5. What is this building used for?
6. What else could you use this building for?
7. Can you tell just by looking at the outside of the building what it is used for? How?
8. Can you tell just by looking at the outside of the building what part of the world it is in?

Arrange all of your pictures on a sheet of poster paper or tagboard. Include a world map on your poster. Draw lines from each illustration to the map to show the building's location.

23. CALENDARS THROUGH HISTORY

Introduction:

Creating a calendar that accurately reflects the seasons continues to challenge scientists. This activity involves students in examining attempts throughout history to develop workable, accurate calendars. This activity could be used in science as well as social studies classes.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Describe calendars from several cultures and eras of history.

2. Describe problems in calendar making.

3. Better understand the origins of current calendars.

Grade Level: 5-6

Time Required: 2 class periods

Materials and Preparation: Make one copy of Handout 23-1 for each student and three to five class copies of Handouts 23-2 through 23-8. You may want to make reference materials on calendars and time available.

Procedure:

1. Introduce the topic of "time" (see Teacher Background). What is it? How do we measure it? Draw this continuum on the board:

Eons / Thousands of years / Centuries / Years / Months / Weeks / Days / Hours / Minutes / Seconds

Which of these divisions of time are we most aware of? How were these divisions decided on? Why is it important to keep track of time? Which units of time are most important for us to keep track of? Why? How might this be different for different people?

2. Divide the class into seven small groups. Distribute Handout 23-1 to each student and explain the types of information they will be searching for. Assign each group to a different culture and distribute the appropriate handout to them.

3. Have students begin work. Allow the rest of the class period for the group work. If necessary, allow 10-15 minutes at the beginning of the next period for completion of the data charts.

4. Have each group report its findings to the class. Have them indicate the area of the world their calendar came from by using a large map of the world. The rest of the class will fill in their charts with the information reported to them.

5. Complete the exercise by discussing the advantages and disadvantages of each calendar. Has the art/science of calendar making advanced with time? Why or why not?

Activity developed by Robert D. LaRue, Jr.

Follow-up:

Encourage interested students to investigate Stonehenge. Although it does not divide the year into months, weeks, or days and is thus not a true calendar, the arrangement of the huge stone monuments is clearly related to solar and lunar cycles. The unknown builders of Stonehenge were able to keep track of the seasons and such events as lunar and solar eclipses.

Teacher Background:

The current calendar in use by most of the world is a curious, confusing patchwork of unequal months and irregular progressions. While the "year" is clearly one simple revolution of the earth around the sun, that year takes longer than 12 new moons, or lunar months. The revolution of the earth on its axis creates a third cycle, day and night, that must be factored in as well.

The three astronomical cycles – year, month, and day – are independent and incompatible. Keeping track of these elements in a manner such that important dates will stay in synchronization with the seasons over the passage of years presents an insoluble problem. The difficulties are evident from this data:

1 solar year = 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 46 seconds

1 lunar month = 29 days, 12 hours, 44.05 minutes

1 day = 24 hours

1 hour = 60 minutes

1 minute = 60 seconds

1 second = 9,192,631,770 quantum radiation cycles of the element cesium. This standard was adopted in 1967.

The units day, hour, and minute and their durations were fixed by decision of a French scientific committee in 1820. The committee decided that 1 second would be equal to 1/86,400 of a "mean solar day." The mean solar day was calculated by averaging the lengths of days during the year. Variations of day-length are caused by variations in the earth's orbital speed and its distance from the sun. These units are thus arbitrary. One speculation is that the units were chosen for their even divisibility by so many integers (60/2 = 30; 60/3 = 20; 60/4 = 15; 60/5 = 12; 60/6 = 10; 60/10 = 6).

The atomic clock used to measure standard time is located in Boulder, Colorado, at the United States National Bureau of Standards. A recording of the precise time can be reached by calling (303) 499-7111.

CALENDARS OF THE WORLD – DATA CHART

Directions: Read the calendar information assigned to your group. Fill in as many of the squares on this sheet as you can for your assigned culture. Discuss the answers with your group members. You will be sharing your data with the rest of the class, so read and write carefully.

	Number of Days in the Year	Number of Months in the Year	Number of Days in the Months	What Year is it Now by This Calendar?	Are Corrections Needed for Accuracy?	What are the Religious Connections?
Sumerian & Babylonian						
Chinese						
Jewish						
Mayan						
Gregorian						
Moslem						
World						

SUMERIAN AND BABYLONIAN CALENDAR

The Sumerians were among the earliest calendar makers. About 5,000 years ago, the Sumerians had professional timekeepers who kept records on tablets of damp clay. They based their original calendar on the moon, dividing the year into 12 months of 30 days each. The Babylonians improved this calendar by alternating 30-day months and 29-day months. They also added an extra 30-day month to make up for lost days. To keep pace with the sun, they added some extra days every three years. We do not have enough of their records to know exactly how they kept track of these extra days.

CHINESE

The Chinese lunar calendar is one of the oldest known time systems. The emperor Huang Ti introduced the first 60-year cycle calendar in about the year 2637 B.C. Each cycle is made up of five twelve-year periods. Each year has an animal name that is combined with the five Chinese symbolic elements – Earth, Fire, Water, Wood, Metal. There are 60 possible combinations, so each year of the cycle is different. For example, 1976 was a Fire Dragon year; 1968 was an Earth Monkey year; 2034 will be a Wood Tiger year. Chinese New Year varies between January and mid-February. February 17, 1988 marked the beginning of the new year 4685. What are the symbols for 1988? This calendar is used primarily by astrologers and fortune tellers today, since the Chinese adopted the Gregorian calendar used by most of the world in 1949.

THE CHINESE CALENDAR

Rat	1900	1912	1924	1936	1948	1960	1972	1984
Ox	1901	1913	1925	1937	1949	1961	1973	1985
Tiger	1902	1914	1926	1938	1950	1962	1974	1986
Rabbit	1903	1915	1927	1939	1951	1963	1975	1987
Dragon	1904	1916	1928	1940	1952	1964	1976	1988
Snake	1905	1917	1929	1941	1953	1965	1977	1989
Horse	1906	1918	1930	1942	1954	1966	1978	1990
Sheep	1907	1919	1931	1943	1955	1967	1979	1991
Monkey	1908	1920	1932	1944	1956	1968	1980	1992
Rooster	1909	1921	1933	1945	1957	1969	1981	1993
Dog	1910	1922	1934	1946	1958	1970	1982	1994
Boar	1911	1923	1935	1947	1959	1971	1983	1995

JEWISH

The seven-day week originated with the Jewish calendar. This calendar is a complex combination of lunar and solar cycles. The year is divided into 12 months of 29 or 30 days. This makes the year 354 days long. To keep in step with the solar seasons, an extra month is added each year. In the 19-year cycle adopted from Babylonia, leap years were observed in the third, sixth, eleventh, fourteenth, seventeenth, and nineteenth years. Some other adjustments are still made to insure that the spring festival of Passover comes after the correct phase of the moon. Jewish New Year does not coincide with the Gregorian New Year. At sunset on September 11 of the Gregorian year 1987, the Jewish year 5749 began. The Jewish calendar is calculated from the traditional date of the creation of the earth.

JEWISH CALENDAR

September	Tishri	Rosh Ha-shanah Yom Kippur - Sukkot
October	Heshvan	
November	Kislev	Hanukkah
December	Tevet	
January	Shevat	Tu Bi-shevat
February	Adar	Purim
March	Nisan	Passover (Pesach)
April	Iyyar	Yom ha-Azma'ut Lag Ba-omer
May	Sivan	Shavuot
June	Tammuz	
July	Av	Tishah be-Av
August	Elul	

Comparing the Jewish and Gregorian calendars

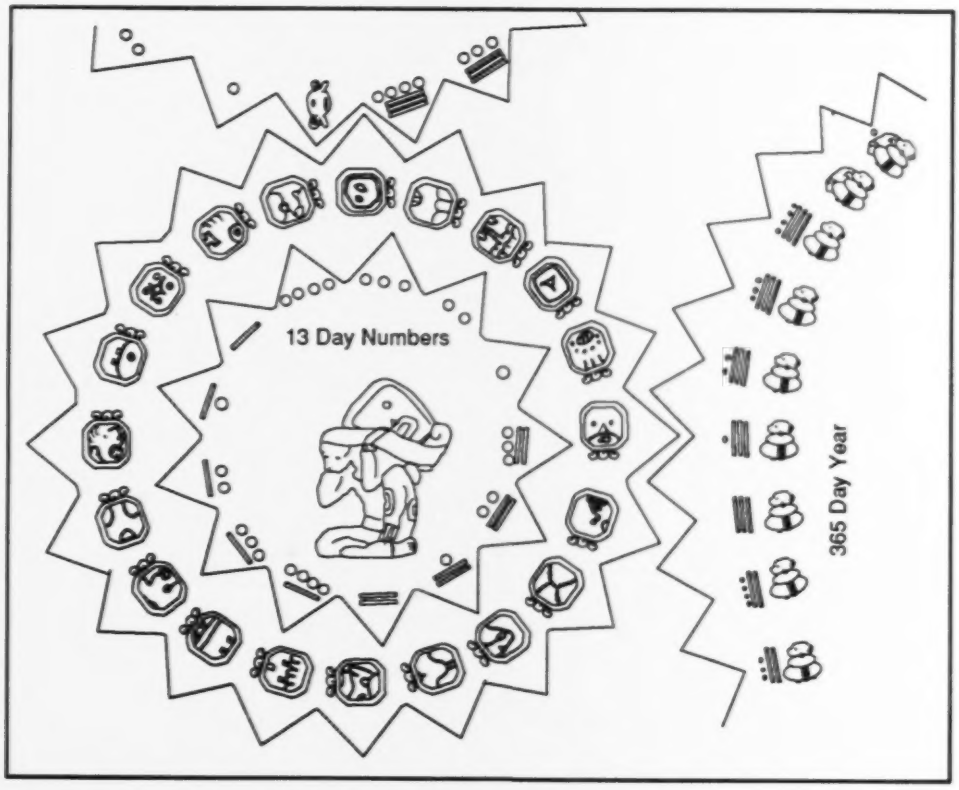
MAYAN

The Mayans devised the most accurate calendar ever used in the ancient world. They used three systems for counting years:

1. The 260-day sacred year, *tzolkin,* determined the pattern of ceremonial life for everyone. Each day of the year was given a number from one to thirteen and one of twenty day names. This worked out to 160 possible combinations.

2. The second, the *haab* calendar, had 365 days. This year was divided into 18 months of 20 days each, with an extra five-day month added. Everyday affairs were guided by this calendar.

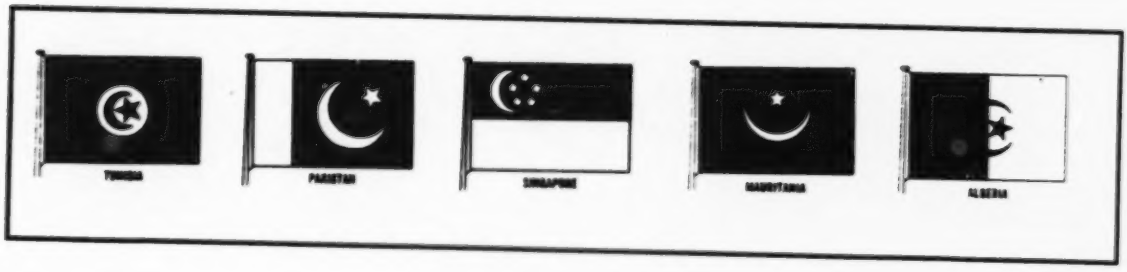
3. By putting the two systems together, the Mayans produced the Long Contj Calendar. This system created 18,980 unique dates. By counting backwards, it was determined that the Mayan calendar must have started with the Gregorian date of 3114 B.C.



This diagram shows how the Calendar Round meshed the 260-day *tzolkin* with 365-day year. From *The Rise and Fall of Maya Civilization,* 2nd ed., by J. Eric S. Thompson (Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press, 1966). Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

MOSLEM

The Moslem calendar is based completely on the cycles of the moon. Six 29-day months and six 30-day months make up the 354-day lunar year. The months have no connection to the seasons, but are used to schedule religious activities. The Moslem calendar was begun in 622 A.D. with an event important to the founding of the religion of Islam. Nonreligious events are usually scheduled with the Gregorian calendar. Thirty-three Moslem years are about equal to 32 Gregorian years. The Moslem year 1409 began in August 1988 of the Gregorian calendar.



The importance of the moon to the Moslem religion is shown in the flags of these Moslem nations.

GREGORIAN

In 47 B.C. Julius Caesar returned to Rome from Egypt with a 365-day calendar to replace the old Roman one of 300 days. This Julian calendar, with small adjustments, was in use in Europe until 1582. A 12-minute-per-year error in this calendar caused it to be out of step with the seasons by 1582. Pope Gregory XIII proposed a reform to the leap year system that reduced the error to only 23 seconds per year. Twenty-three seconds per year equals an error of one day every 3,323 years. To bring the calendar back into step with the seasons, ten days were deleted from the year 1582. Many countries in Europe changed immediately, but it was not until 1752 that England and America accepted the change. Japan adopted the change in 1873, the Soviet Union in 1918, and China in 1949.

In the year 527 the practice of dating events "A.D." (Anno Domini—year of our Lord) was proposed. It took several centuries before the system was adopted throughout Europe. In the 17th century, scholars began to use "B.C." (or before Christ) to count years backward from the birth of Jesus.

WORLD

For centuries reformers have proposed various methods of simplifying the calendar. One proposal was developed in 1930 by Elizabeth Achelis. She divided the year into four equal quarters. Each quarter year had 91 days. Each quarter had three months of 31, 30, and 30 days. Since four quarters of 91 days add up to only 364 days, an extra day was added to the end of December. This day would not be counted as a day of the week. Even though it would fall just after Saturday, it would be called Worldsday instead of Sunday. In Leap Years, an extra day called Leap-Year Day, would be added at the end of June.

Proposed World Calendar

JANUARY						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

FEBRUARY						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

MARCH						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

APRIL						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

MAY						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
				1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

JUNE						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30	W

JULY						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

AUGUST						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

SEPTEMBER						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

OCTOBER						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

NOVEMBER						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

DECEMBER						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30	W

24. THE GLOBAL GOURMET

Introduction:

Young people are linked to a global community in many ways – some ways so commonplace that students do not recognize the connections. The wide variety of foods that young people eat every day provide one vehicle for helping students recognize their ties – both current and historical – to a global community.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

1. Identify the international origins of everyday foods.

2. Discuss how international influences enrich a national culture and experience.

3. Hypothesize about how foods from around the world became a part of American cooking.

Grade Level: 2-6

Time Required: 1 class period

Materials and Preparation: Make copies of Handout 24-1 for all students. If you plan to use the Follow-up activity, you will also need copies of Handout 24-2.

Procedure:

1. Ask students if they like any foods from other countries. What foreign foods do students like or eat regularly? On the chalkboard, compile a list of foreign foods that students eat and enjoy, noting where each food originated. Student answers will probably include such items as tacos and nachos (Mexico), spaghetti and pizza (Italy), egg rolls (China), and ramen or Cup O' Noodles (Japan).

2. Tell students that, in fact, a great many of the foods they eat every day came originally from some other part of the world. If students look closely enough, they may be surprised to realize how many international foods they eat.

3. Distribute copies of Handout 24-1. As you read the story aloud to the class, ask students to stop you each time a food from another country is mentioned. Compile a list of the foreign foods students identify on the chalkboard, as well as their country or region of origin.

4. Next, ask a student volunteer to read the story aloud a second time. Using the version of the story provided in the **Teacher Background**, stop the student reader each time a food from another country is mentioned. For younger students, you may read or describe the history of each international food item. For older students, you may want to simply identify the food item, having students discover the geographic origin and history of the food in a short library research project.

5. Discuss findings in class. How many different countries is the global gourmet tied to through the foods he or she eats every day? In what ways does food tie the people of the world together? How did these foods become part of the American diet? (Trade routes, immigrant groups, travel experiences of Americans to other countries) Using a wall map, have students trace the routes some sample foods took from their place of origin to the United States. What would the American diet be like without all these foods?

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

Follow-up:

As an extension activity, students may conduct a supermarket search to identify the variety of foods from other countries that are available in their community. Distribute Handout 24-2 to each student or to students working in groups. Ask students to accompany a parent during a grocery shopping trip and to locate as many international examples of each food group as possible. Have students compare findings in class.

Possible answers are: *breads:* bagels, French bread, English muffins, tortillas, matzoh, pita bread, Russian black bread, Scandinavian crisp bread; *fruits:* papaya, kiwi fruit, coconut, bananas, fig, pomegranate, lychee, mango, avocado, mandarin orange; *vegetables:* Chinese cabbage, mung bean sprouts, ginger root, water chestnuts, bamboo shoots, tomatoes, artichokes, leeks, Jerusalem artichoke, chili peppers; *cereals and grains:* rice, couscous.

Teacher Background:

THE GLOBAL GOURMETS

Mrs. Gourmet has a bowl of strawberry yogurt, a piece of toast, and a cup of tea.

STOP. *Yogurt* was developed in Eastern Europe or Central Asia hundreds of years ago. It was a staple food product in Bulgaria, Russia, Turkey, Greece, and India, to name a few countries, before it became popular as a health food in the United States just 20-30 years ago. Yogurt is made from goat, sheep, or cow milk, soured and curdled by a special bacteria, called lactobacillus.

Tea was first grown in southwest China centuries ago. British traders who went to China in the 1600s brought tea back to England and Europe, where it became a very popular hot beverage. British colonists came to America in the 1700s, bringing their fondness for tea with them.

Mr. Gourmet has scrambled eggs, toast, and coffee.

STOP. *Coffee* probably first came from Ethiopia, where it still grows wild. In the 1500s, traders brought coffee up the Red Sea to Egypt. Coffee was first drunk in England and France in the 1600s. Spanish and Portuguese settlers began to cultivate coffee in South America in the 1700s.

Jennifer has oatmeal.

STOP. Eating hot *oatmeal* has been a breakfast tradition in the British Isles, especially Ireland and Scotland, for hundreds of years. British colonists brought the tradition to North America.

David has granola with dried pineapples and bananas. They each have a cup of hot chocolate.

STOP. *Granola*, which started out in the United States as a health-food cereal, is adapted from a traditional Swiss breakfast cereal called meusli. Similar to granola, meusli is made of roasted nuts, fruits, and grains.

Originally from India and Southern Asia, *bananas* are now grown all over the world in warm climates. Arab traders brought bananas into Egypt. In the 15th century, Portuguese traders brought the fruit from Africa to the West Indies and the Americas.

Pineapple is one of the world's most important and popular tropical fruits. The pineapple originated in South America and was carried from there to other tropical locations by European explorers.

Hot chocolate was a popular drink of the Aztec Indians of Mexico long before the Spanish arrived in the New World. The explorer, Hernando Cortéz, brought chocolate back with him to Spain in 1526. Throughout Europe, chocolate became a popular drink. However, it was very expensive because the chocolate beans had to be brought from South and Central America and then roasted and ground to

get the chocolate into edible form. Europeans who came to North America to settle brought their taste for chocolate with them.

David eats a chocolate bar with almonds.

STOP. *Chocolate* originated in South and Central America.

Almonds originated in the Mediterranean and are now grown in South Africa, Australia, Spain, Italy, and California.

Hamburgers on sesame seed buns...plenty of ketchup.

STOP. *Hamburgers* get their name from meat patties invented in Hamburg, Germany. The sesame seeds that top popular hamburger buns have been grown in Africa, India, and China since ancient times. Although sesame seeds are used mostly as a condiment in the United States, the seeds are a staple food product in the Middle East. There, sesame seeds are the raw material for cooking oil and candles.

In Southeast Asia, *ketchup* is a general word that describes a variety of sauces made from fish, seafood, or vegetables. Europeans borrowed the word to describe a sauce they made from tomatoes.

Chewing gum.

STOP. *Chewing gum* is made from "chicle," a rubbery sap that comes from the sapodilla, a tree that only grows in the Yucatan Peninsula and Central America.

Corn chips.

STOP. *Corn chips* are a snack food that has become popular in the United States in the past 20 years. Corn chips are adapted from the traditional fried corn tortillas of Mexico and Central America.

Hot dogs, salad, and rice.

STOP. *Hot dogs* are a popular American food that originated in Germany. Hot dogs are the common name for frankfurters, German smoked sausages. The name hot dog was adopted during World War I, when the United States was fighting against Germany. At that time, patriotic Americans did not want to use German words for their foods.

Rice has been a staple food grain of Asia for over 5,000 years. Arabs carried rice from Southern Asia to the Middle East, Italy, and Spain. Rice is now grown all over the world, including Spain, Portugal, France, the United States, and most countries of Asia.

THE ALL-AMERICAN GOURMETS

It's Monday morning. The Gourmet family sits down to breakfast at 7:00. Mrs. Gourmet has a bowl of strawberry yogurt, a piece of toast, and a cup of tea. Mr. Gourmet has scrambled eggs, toast, and coffee. The two Gourmet children, Jennifer and David, each have cereal. Jennifer has oatmeal. David has granola with dried pineapples and bananas. They each have a cup of hot chocolate with their cereal.

Later that morning, at school, David begins to feel hungry. He searches in his lunch bag and finds that his mother has included a chocolate bar with almonds for his dessert. He eats it at about 11:00. Still hungry, David waits patiently until the lunch bell rings at 12:00.

At 12:00, David races to the cafeteria to eat. At the lunch table, he opens his sack to find that his mother has packed for him a tuna fish sandwich and an apple. "Yuck," David thinks, "I hate tuna fish." David gives his lunch away to a friend. He gets in line to buy lunch. It's a choice between fried chicken and hamburgers on sesame seed buns, cole slaw, and French fries. David picks the hamburger, with pickles, lettuce, and plenty of ketchup.

After lunch, the afternoon drags slowly. A friend gives David a piece of chewing gum, which picks him up. After school David races home. Jennifer is already home. She is eating corn chips and drinking a cola while she works on her computer. David helps himself to chips. He goes to his room to study but falls sound asleep until his mother calls him for dinner.

For dinner the Gourmet family has hot dogs, salad, and rice, with brownies for dessert.

SUPERMARKET SEARCH

Go on a grocery shopping trip with one of your parents. For each of the categories below, try to find as many different international examples of this food product as you can. You can get clues about the origin of the food from product names, written information on the wrapper, or pictures.

Breads from around the world

Try to find at least five breads from different places around the world.

	Name	Country of origin
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

Vegetables

Write the names of at least five vegetables that were originally grown in another part of the world. Your parent or a grocer may be able to help you.

	Name	Country of origin
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

Fruit

Identify at least five fruits brought to the United States from another country.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES FOR TEACHERS

The lists below suggest the variety of resources available in the area of global studies and the range of organizations and projects with interests in the area. Many of the materials listed contain bibliographies of additional materials, and all of the organizations can provide more information about specific or general topics related to the field. These lists are provided simply as starting points for developing your own resource collection on global studies.

Materials

Atlas of Mankind (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1982).

This book presents world maps on the universal features of society: language, economic and political systems, religions, kinship patterns, and social organization. A wealth of information is provided.

Castles, Codes, Calligraphy (Santa Barbara, CA: Learning Works, 1984).

This reproducible activity book contains three units of activities. "Castles" helps students discover how and why castles were built and learn what life was like within their walls. "Codes" provides encoding and decoding activities, while "Calligraphy" examines the historical background of well-known alphabets. Each section includes more than 50 activities, bulletin board and learning center ideas, a pre/post test, and an award to be given to students on completing each unit.

Chase's Calendar of Annual Events: An Almanac and Survey of the Year (Flint, MI: Apple Tree Press, annual).

The subtitle of this publication is Holidays, Holy Days, National and Ethnic Days, Seasons, Astronomical Phenomena, Festivals and Fairs, Anniversaries, Birthdays, Special Events and Traditional Observances of All Kinds, the World Over. Little else need be said about the contents of this information-filled resource.

Complete Book of the Olympics, The, by David Wallechinsky (New York: Penguin Books, 1984).

This resource covers the modern Olympics, providing results for every event held since the Olympics began in 1896. Also provided are many stories about Olympic history that students will find interesting.

Cooperative Learning, Cooperative Lives, by Nancy Schiedewind and Ellen Davidson (Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown, 1987).

Subtitled, A Sourcebook of Learning Activities for Building a Peaceful World, this book contains more than 100 classroom activities designed to help students understand the importance of cooperation.

Culturgrams: The Nations Around Us, by the David M. Kennedy Center for International Studies, Brigham Young University (Garrett Park, MD: Garrett Park Press, 1986).

These two volumes—one on the Americas and Europe and the other on the Middle East, Asia, Africa, and the Pacific Area—present four pages of background information on approximately 100 nations. This information includes a map and background on customs and courtesies, people and lifestyles, climate, history and government, economy, education, transportation, and health. Three or four additional readings are suggested.

Elementary Population Activities Kit (Washington, DC: Zero Population Growth, 1984).

This kit contains 20 modules for K-6 classrooms. The modules, which focus on such topics as exponential growth and migration, can be used individually or can be combined as a unit. Minimal teacher preparation time is needed to use the activities.

Flags, by Eric Inglefield (New York: Arco Publishing, 1984).

This book contains full-color reproductions of all the national flags. Some history is also given for each flag, as are basic patterns for designing flags.

Folk Tale Plays Round the World, by Paul T. Nolan (Boston: Plays, Inc., 1982).

This book contains 16 plays based on folk tales of such countries as Poland, Greece, Spain, and China. For each play, the author provides notes on production, acting style, and cultural aspects.

Folk Toys Around the World and How to Make Them, by Virginia Fowler (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1984).

This book provides instructions for 30 projects related to folk toys in various places around the world. The projects also represent different time periods, so both cultural and historical dimensions can be addressed.

Games They Played, The: Sports in History, by Richard B. Lyttle (New York: Atheneum, 1982).

This book covers the history of sports in Greece, Rome, Germany, Egypt, Spain, and Holland, as well as in the Eskimo and Mayan cultures.

Global Issues in the Intermediate Classroom, by Jacquelyn Johnson and John Benegar (Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1988).

Designed to make full use of students' natural curiosity, the lessons and activities in this newly revised book will help students discover how global issues affect their community and how local decisions and actions affect people around the world. The book's three major sections are "Global Awareness," "Global Interdependence," and "Cross-Cultural Understanding."

Global Primer: Skills for a Changing World, by H. Thomas Collins and Fred Czarra (Denver, CO: Center for Teaching International Relations, 1986).

This book offers a variety of high-interest global studies learning activities especially designed to develop elementary students' skills. The lessons can be used in social studies, math, science, or language arts classes. They are grouped into four categories: "World Basics," "World Awareness," "World Communications," and "Map and Globe Skills."

Images of the World: An Atlas of Satellite Imagery and Maps (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1983).

This fascinating resource contains full-color satellite views of the earth's major land formations. Each of the images is accompanied by a map that explains the principal landforms shown. An introduction explains remote-sensing technology.

Learning Journeys (Culver City, CA: Social Studies School Service, 1985).

These two books of reproducible lessons cover a variety of skill areas. Each lesson focuses on the people, food, customs, games, and crafts of a particular country.

Many Hands Cooking, by Terry Touff Cooper and Marilyn Ratner (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, n.d.).

This international children's cookbook was prepared in cooperation with UNICEF. The full-color book presents recipes from 40 nations, along with brief notes about the foods of the nation.

Metropolitan Museum of Art Activity Book: Crafts, Models, Toys, Games, Puzzles, and Mazes Inspired by the Treasures in the Museum's Collection, by Osa Brown (New York: Random House, 1983).

This book presents full-color illustrations of museum pieces, along with instructions for making such items as Japanese Carp Kites, Peruvian Masks, and Roman Mosaics.

National Anthems of the World (New York: Sterling Publishing, 1985).

This resource contains 172 national anthems. Included are the words in the original language, an English translation, and piano accompaniment.

New Global Yellow Pages, The (New York: American Forum, 1986).

This resource lists 165 organizations, associations, or projects that provide materials or services related to global education. The listings are extensively annotated, and the book is well indexed to make finding relevant resources easy.

One World: Countries Database (Culver City, CA: Social Studies School Service, 1985).

This computer data base – available in a variety of Apple, Commodore, and IBM versions – contains information on 178 nations. The data base covers information in 33 geographical, economic, and demographic categories and can be searched using multiple criteria.

Other Side, The: A Global Conflict Resolution Game (Cambridge, MA: Tom Snyder Productions, 1985).

This computer simulation involves two teams attempting to cooperate – despite limited communication – to build a bridge spanning the ocean that separates them. Both teams must operate their nation's economics efficiently, converting fuel to money to obtain the resources needed to finance the project.

Promoting World Understanding Through Literature, K-8, by Mary C. Austin and Esther C. Jenkins (Littleton, CO: Libraries Unlimited, 1983).

This book introduces the use of literature to help students become more sensitive and accepting of diverse heritage and values. The book contains extensive annotated bibliographies of multiethnic books.

"Simulations for a Global Perspective," *Intercom* No. 107 (New York: American Forum, 1985).

This issue of the global studies periodical *Intercom* brings together games that appeared in previous numbers (some now out of print). The games focus on such areas as cooperation, conflict resolution, international law, the environment, and energy.

State of the World, The, by Lester R. Brown and others (Washington, DC: Worldwatch Institute, annual).

The Worldwatch Institute annually publishes this report on the world's resources and how they are being used. While not suitable for use by elementary students, the book provides valuable information for teachers.

Storytellers' Sourcebook: A Subject, Title, and Motif Index to Folklore Collections for Children, by Margaret Read MacDonald (Detroit: Neal-Schuman Publishers, 1982).

This teacher reference describes 566 folktale collections and 389 picture books published from 1960 to 1981. The books are indexed by subject and by geographic and ethnic origin.

Teaching Global Awareness: An Approach for the Elementary Grades, by Junelle P. Barrett and others (Denver, CO: Center for Teaching International Relations, 1987).

Awareness of other people—where they came from, how they live—is an integral part of global studies. This book is based on the premise that such awareness is appropriate for all grades. The 26 activities in the book stress human commonalities and differences as they relate to needs, values, perceptions, and lifestyles. The book emphasizes skills for geography, consumerism, problem solving, and adaptation to change.

Teaching International Human Rights: A Selection of Issues, by Jan L. Tucker with Robin Lichter King and Samuel A. Carter (Miami, FL: Global Awareness Program, 1983).

This teaching guide contains lessons on international human rights, social and cultural rights, and civil and political rights. The authors present background materials and relevant United Nations documents, as well as a bibliography.

Teaching Reading in the Social Studies: A Global Approach for Grades K-5, by Colleen M. Rickert and Mary Gold (Denver, CO: Center for Teaching International Relations, 1983).

This resource provides activities for teaching global studies and reading skills simultaneously. The three sections of the book—"Our World," "Our Expanding World," and "Variety of Cultures"—emphasize vocabulary development, reading comprehension, and reading study skills.

Think Factory: Problem Solving for Today's World (Mount Kisco, NY: Sunburst Communications, 1986).

This set of black-line masters is intended to help students analyze and evaluate some of today's most urgent global problems. The program includes relevant stories, articles, and essays on such topics as energy, the arms race, and pollution.

TV: A Global Perspective (Chicago: Prime Time School Television, 1983).

This brief guide provides suggestions for helping students use television to better understand their world. Commercials, current events, conflict, change, and communication are discussed. A brief bibliography is also included.

Windows to the World/More Windows to the World, by Nancy Everix (Carthage, IL: Good Apple, 1984-1985).

In these two softbound books, students "take a trip around the world," learning about the geographical and historical background of seven countries in each book. Students experience the excitement of exploring language, food, native plants, and animals. Suggestions for student projects are provided.

Whole Earth Holiday Book, The, by Linda Polon anhd Aileen Cantwell (Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, 1983).

This teacher resource describes more than 50 holidays around the world. For each, the book provides the history and related customs, as well as an activity to sharpen language arts skills. The book is arranged to follow the school year.

World in a Chocolate Bar (New York: American Forum, n.d.)

This poster includes a lesson on interdependence. A chocolate bar is used to explore the idea of global systems through a mapping activity, which helps students learn how problems in one part of the system affect its other parts.

Worldlink (Burbank, CA: Worldlink, annual).

Worldlink is a series of six videotapes produced each year. Each video looks at global issues and contains international news clips as well as interviews with young people from various cultures. Magazines with related articles and suggestions for classroom use of the video are provided with each program.

Worldways: Bringing the World into the Classroom, by Pamela Elder and Mary Ann Carr (Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley, 1987).

This teacher resource book provides a "broad-based rationale for teaching with a global perspective," supported by 76 activities and an extensive resource section. The wide-ranging topics of the activities may be used in language arts, social studies, math, science, art, home economics, and physical education. The teaching strategies are also varied.

Organizations

American Forum: Education in a Global Age
45 John Street, Suite 1200
New York, NY 10038

Asia Society
725 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10021

Associates in Multicultural and International Education
Box 14256
Chicago, IL 60614

Association for World Education
Box 589
Huntington, NY 11743

Center for International and Intercultural Education
Kent State University
202 White Hall
Kent, OH 44242

Center for Public Education in International Affairs
University of Southern California
School of International Relations
VKC 328
Los Angeles, CA 90089-0043

Center for Teaching International Relations
University of Denver
Ben M. Cherrington Hall, Room 210
Denver, CO 80208

Center for World Education
College of Education and Social Services
University of Vermont
Burlington, VT 05405

Curriculum Inquiry Center
University of California, Los Angeles
Graduate School of Education
405 Hilgard Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90024

Educators for Social Responsibility
23 Garden Street
Cambridge, MA 02138

Foreign Policy Association
Department of School Programs
1800 M Street, NW, Suite 295N
Washington, DC 20036

Global Awareness Program
College of Education
Florida International University
University Park
Miami, FL 33199

Global Education Associates
552 Park Avenue
East Orange, NJ 07017

Global Educators
Box 9976
Mills College
Oakland, CA 94613

Global Learning
40 South Fullerton
Montclair, NJ 07043

Global Education Outreach
2000 L Street, NW, Suite 320
Washington, DC 20036

International Friendship League
22 Batterymarch Street
Boston, MA 02109

International Pen Friends
Box 14126, B.O. Station
San Juan, PR 00915

League of Friendship
Box 509
Mt. Vernon, OH 43050

Links
School of International Affairs
George Washington University
Washington, DC 20052

Massachusetts Global Education Project
Winchester Public Schools
154 Horn Pond Brook Road
Winchester, MA 01890

Mershon Center
Ohio State University
199 West 19th Avenue
Columbus, OH 43201

Middle East Outreach Council
University of Utah
Middle East Center, Building 413
Salt Lake City, UT 84112

National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark Street, NW
Washington, DC 20016

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
1750 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20006

Overseas Development Council
1717 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036

People-to-People International
2440 Pershing Road, Suite G-30
Kansas City, MO 64108

Population Reference Bureau
777 14th Street, NW, Suite 800
Washington, DC 20005

Reach Center for Multicultural and Global Education
Box 309
Arlington, WA 98223

Social Science Education Consortium
855 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302

Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University
2805 East 10th Street
Bloomington, IN 47405

Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education
Stanford University
Lou Henry Hoover Building, #200
Stanford, CA 94305

Student Letter Exchange
910 Fourth Street, SE
Austin, MN 55912

United Nations Association of the USA
485 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10017-6104

Women Associated in Global Education Consortium
c/o Immaculate Heart College Center
10951 West Pico Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90064

World Affairs Council of Philadelphia
John Wanamaker Store
13th and Market Streets
Philadelphia, PA 19107

Worldwatch Institute
1776 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036